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ABSTRACT

In the United States, 67% of all schools are in rural areas and 33% of all school children attend rural schools. The availability of rural-specific information is imperative for rural and urban special educators, administrators, parents and others who come into daily contact with children and youth with disabilities. This collection of 105 rural-related document annotations provides practitioners with a resource to better understand, define, and describe rural special education. Materials abstracted include position papers, statistical studies, descriptions of successful model programs, and case studies. Articles deal with teacher salaries, parent and paraprofessional relationships, special education technologies, and other issues relevant to rural special education. The sources of this bibliography include professional journals, newspapers, magazines, government publications, and ERIC documents, dated from 1978 through 1987. (ALL)

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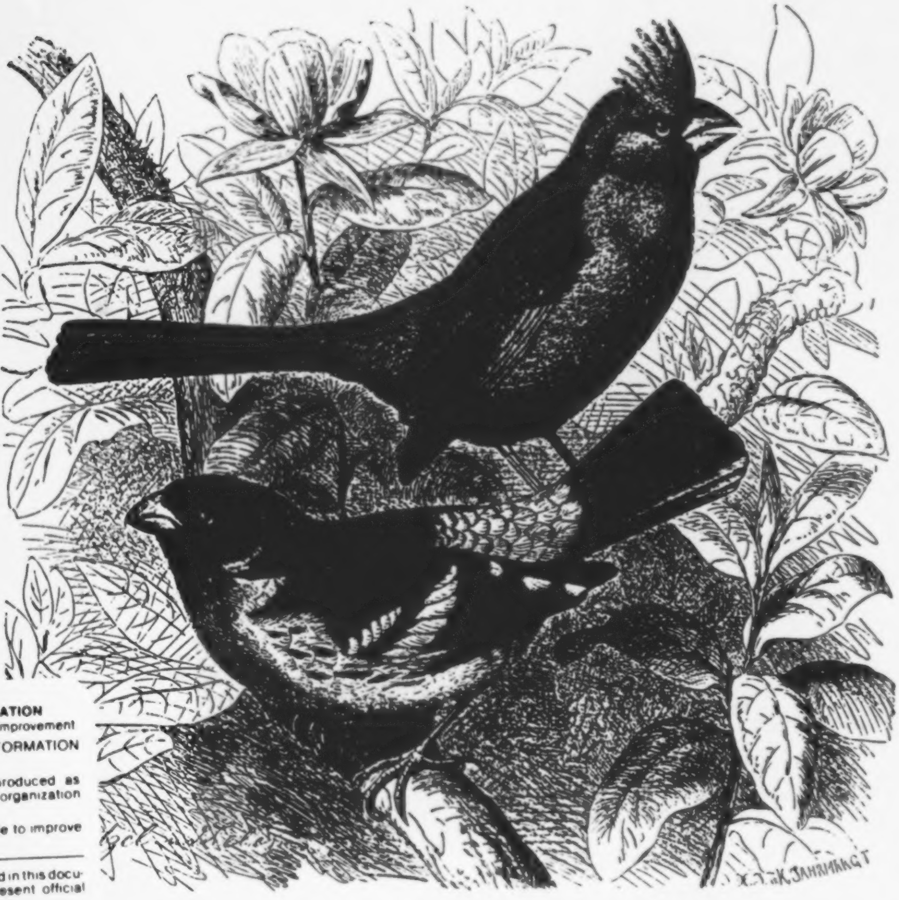
RURAL EDUCATION/RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATION LITERATURE REVIEW (BIBLIOGRAPHY AND ABSTRACTS)



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RURAL BIBLIOGRAPHY
RURAL ABSTRACTS

University of Kansas

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RURAL ABSTRACTS 1

INTRODUCTION

Knowledge about rural education is consequential when considering that 67% of all schools in the United States are in rural areas and they serve 33% of all school children. Thus, the availability of rural-specific information is imperative for rural and urban special educators, administrators, parents, and others who come into daily educational contact with children and youth with disabilities.

Life in rural America is uniquely complex. Issues identified in areas such as geographics, economics, politics, and resources are rubrics under which positive and negative aspects of rural life can be examined. For the delivery of rural education in light of the issues, the challenge to educators is especially difficult.

This collection of rural-related literature represents an effort by the Rural Special Education Preservice Project (RSEPP) at the University of Kansas to provide insight into the concept of "ruralness". This compendium of abstracts is to provide practitioners with a resource to better understand, define, and describe rural special education. It includes position papers, statistical studies, descriptions of successful model programs, and case studies. Specifically, special education practitioners can find articles dealing with teacher salaries, parent and paraprofessional relationships, special education technologies, and other issues relevant to rural education.

This collection of abstracts is provided to ameliorate the concept of "ruralness" and its relation to the delivery of special education. If awareness of rural education can be increased through use of this document and knowlege used to better the lives of rural special education students, then the objective of this effort will have been met.

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RURAL ABSTRACTS

American Association of School Administrators. (1983). Ensuring excellence in rural education. Educational Digest, 49, 41-43.

Background:

Well into this century the public education system was dominated by rural schools. As recently as 45 years ago there were 150,000 one-room schoolhouses; now there are fewer than 1,500.

While geographic isolation protects many rural school districts from the social problems of urbanized areas, it also deprives them of the resources of the cities, such as cultural experiences and professional opportunities.

Advantages/Disadvantages:

Despite the disadvantages, polls show that rural people are generally pleased with their schools.

Advantages of attending a rural school include a more personalized environment; more leadership opportunities to students.

Standardized test results show that the greatest improvement in reading has been among younger minority children in the predominantly rural Southeast.

Rural Characteristics:

The most important characteristic of rural schools is their differences from each other. Researcher Tom Gjeilen has defined five distinct types of rural schools:

- -Stable, white, homogeneous, agricultural, and mostly in the west or midwest-closest to the "classic" ideal of rural
- -Depressed, with marginal sources of income and mostly in the south, for which the overriding question is whether they should aim at revitalizing the economy or help individual students move on
- -High Growth such as the schools of the "boom towns" of the energy states
- -Reborn those mostly in new recreation areas where people are coming by choice, where conflicts can arise between the natives and the newcomers over values, student futures, and cultural and social changes
- -Isolated such as those on islands or mountain tops, where the isolation now is more profound than in the past

Recent Issues:

In the last decade, for the first time in 160 years, the migration pattern reversed. People are moving to rural areas than away from them. Due to this recent change rural schools are being asked to deliver varieties and levels of educational services not required before. In addition they are beginning to face some of the same social problems of more urbanized schools.

Strengths:

-community involvement
-pivotal to economic development within a community
-cooperation among schools
-opportunities to experiment with innovative organizational arrangements

Weaknesses:

-appropriate training for teachers and administrators
-rural schools must prepare their students for a variety of futures despite limited resources
-lack of educational needs for the handicapped, minorities and girls

Rural Promise:

The most promising development for rural schools is the integration of new technologies. Rural educators generally believe that technology can provide their schools with greater flexibility in the curriculum and can help overcome the barrier of transportation and cost that rural schools face in providing quality programs.

Barker, B. O. (1985). Teachers' salaries in rural america. Texas Tech Journal of Education, 145-149.

-Average salaries in rural areas are considerably lower than what is paid to urban and surburban areas.

-Average beginning salaries are not much different from urban schools.

-Data: 1982-83, Rural Teachers, 45 States. Definition rural K-12 district with 900 or less students.

-1982-83 average rural salaries $16,377.00 (rg.) 8310-39000 (sd) 2893.
-1982-83 nationwide average salaries, $20,531.00
-Rural salaries, $ 4154.00 (or 20.2%) lower.
-1/3 of all teachers are in rural schools.

Reasons for Lower Salaries:

-Tenures are shorter: Teachers start in rural positions and then move to better opportunities.
-Isolation: Teachers want a different chance to continue studies and make more money.

Nation at Risk:

-All salaries need to be professionally competitive, market sensitive,and performance based.

More Problems:

-Teachers in rural schools have:
  -heavier workloads
  -more extra curricular activities
  -2-3 grade levels
  -several different subjects

Barker, B. O. (1987, April). The effects of learning by satellite on rural schools. Paper presented at the Learning by Satellite Conference. Tulsa, OK. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 284 693)

High school administrators in sparsely populated rural areas are showing great interest in interactive satellite instruction as a way to resolve teacher shortages and meet rigorous state graduation requirements. Televised classes permitting live teacher/student interaction via satellite communication systems and regular telephone lines provide equity and increase quality of educational opportunity, provide access to subject matter experts/career role models not available in local communities, provide interaction with students in other schools, increase access to information/instructional resources, offer opportunities for staff development/ inservice training, and increase school/community linkages. Four interactive instructional television satellite systems currently operate in the United States: The TI-IN Network from San Antonio, Texas, Oklahoma State University's Arts and Sciences Teleconferencing Service, Utah State Department of Education's system, and Eastern Washington University's Telecommunication Project. The rapid growth of these four satellite networks has generated interest by many state officials in statewide satellite networks. Kentucky and Missouri are the first states to establish networks to broadcast elementary/secondary, staff development, college credit, adult education, and community education courses. Characteristics of the satellite systems are described and addresses for further information about the systems are provided.

Barker, B. O. (1987, March). Using interactive technologies to increase course offerings in small and rural schools. Paper presented at the Annual Conference for Microcomputers and Technology in K-12 Education. Carbondale, IL. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 279 465)

Many schools across the United States have been using distance learning technologies to help them meet new state-mandated curriculum requirements. Distance learning refers to the live, simultaneous transmission of a master teacher's lessons from a host classroom or studio to receive site classrooms in distant locations. Schools with the most to gain from distance learning technologies are rural and small schools -- those with low student enrollments and/or those lacking trained personnel. This paper summarizes present technologies that allow live, two-way audio and/or visual interaction between two or more sites simultaneously for educational purposes. Emphasis is on programs specifically benefiting students in rural and small schools. Descriptions are given for the four most widely used instructional television satellite systems, two-way interactive television systems, Instructional Television Fixed Service (ITFS) systems, audio-graphic teleconferencing, and audio-teleconferencing. Appendix A lists addresses of successful, on-going distance learning projects that interested readers can contact for additional information. Appendix B presents names, addresses, and brief descriptions of 57 telecommunications vendors in the United States.

Baskerville, R. (1980, November). Political action in rural education. Paper presented at the 2nd Annual Kansas State University Rural and Small School Conference, Manhattan, KS. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 201 462)

People United for Rural Education (PURE), organized in Iowa in 1977, now has about 3,000 members in 23 states and 3 foreign countries.

PURE's purpose is to ensure the survival of rural schools and to promote rural life as a viable and credible way of life.

One of the organization's most difficult tasks is to counteract urban attitudes towards rural schools and communities. These negative attitudes are primarily distributed through the mass media, especially in print, and have a strong influence on urban and rural residents alike.

PURE's central political thrust is to let state legislators and departments of education know that small rural schools are efficient, creative, and resourceful, and that they are worthy of the support necessary for their continuance.

Beam, J. K. (1985). Factors in the development of rural transition programs.
Rural Special Education Quarterly, 6 (4), 52-54.

Transition: A national priority.

Obstacles in general: Problems in interagency cooperation, follow-up services.

Unique rural problems of: School/work related issues, limited employment opportunities, lack of transitional opportunities, higher costs of related services, and a mismatch of curriculum to rural life.

1984 ACRES Study:

- -14% of rural special education graduates in post-secondary job training.
- -23% of students in integrated work settings.
- -63% are in segregated work settings.
- -Only 58% of the rural communities had job training programs for disabled post-secondary students.
- -A comprehensive definition of transition is needed that includes housing, leisure, and personal-social skills.

Curriculum Content:

- -rural secondary programs must adopt the philosophy of career education, vocational training, and work-related experiences for young adults.
- -transition programs should be attuned to the special needs of clients in the rural setting.
- -identify competencies needed in the rural setting.
- -match secondary curriculum to available employment opportunities.
- -identify adult service providers, and incorporate the "how to" of accessing services for parents and students in school programs.
- -implement work programs that use placements with employers in the community as opposed to simulated school setting training.
- -conduct training whenever possible in community based settings.
- -Hasaji, Gordon, & Roe (1985), state that educational and vocational experience do influence employment status following graduation or exit from school (the above list should be components in IEPs & ITPs).

Blasi, J. F. (1981, January). Competencies and needs of rural special educators. Portales, NM. Eastern New Mexico University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 220 261)

Introduction:

Rural special educators play a complex role in the provision of services to exceptional learners. Population sparsity and distance factors more or less mandate that most rural special education programs must be cross-categorical, multi-age programs. These same factors, and the fact that support specialists in related areas are nonexistent or available on an extremely limited basis, accent the need for rural special educators to have competencies in:

-knowledge of legislative and legal ramifications
-assessment
-instructional and monitoring processes
-communicating with parents
-communicating with other professionals
-coordination, consultation, and collaboration
-planning for personal and professional renewal

Competency Specifications:

Competencies applied in rural settings take on different meanings than when applied in urban areas. Further, competency specifications have direct implications for both preservice and inservice efforts.

The need for strong rural special education services can no longer be denied; excellent special educators play a major and critical role in the delivery of services to the exceptional learner. Hopefully, excellent special educators prepared to serve in rural areas can help to lessen the double disadvantage experienced by rural exceptional individuals and provide the impetus for more concentrated efforts for rural schools.

Bowers, J. H., & Burkett, C. W. (1987, October). Relationship of student achievement and characteristics in two selected school facility environmental settings. Paper presented at the Annual International Conference of the Council of Educational Facility Planners. Alberta, Canada. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 286 278)

Research findings indicate that students are affected positively or adversely by the visual, acoustical, and thermal characteristics of the classroom environment. During the 1986-1987 school year, 280 fourth and sixth-grade students housed in two separate school facilities--the oldest and the newest in a rural Tennessee county school district--were tested to determine if the physical environment of a school was related to student achievement, health, attendance, and behavior. Procedures used to analyze the data were analysis of variance , chi-square, and t-tests. A significant difference existed between students at the two elementary schools in regard to the relationship between the physical environment and student achievement. Scores in reading, listening, language, and arithmetic showed a significant difference, with the students in the modern building performing much better than the students in the older school. The former students proved to have a better record in the areas of health, attendance, and discipline when compared to the latter students. Educational consultants, architects, and administrators should be apprised of the importance attached to the compatibility between physical environment and student learning with other behavior.

Bull, K.S. (1987). Rural options for gifted education. ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools. Las Cruces, NM. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 284 716)

Rural gifted programs should be developed by the consumers in rural communities and should focus on the needs and strengths of the community. The unique aspects of rural schools should be used to develop defensible community-based programs. General gifted education procedures, such as developing peer groups and psychologically secure environments, should be followed, but grouping provisions from larger urban settings are not generally appropriate. Curricula for gifted students should be modified in terms of rate of progress, control of content, and type of content. These content changes, as well as changes in instructional formats, may be accomplished or supported using modern technological means, particularly computers. When the local program requires it, teachers or students may be transported to off-campus locations to meet program goals. Support activities may be provided out hool, but these activities should be in addition to a regular education program for gifted stude

Burke, L., & Edington, E. D. (1980, November). The effects of the rural school. Paper presented at the 2nd Annual Kansas State University Rural and Small School Conference. Manhattan, KS. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 201 460)

Most literature characterizes rural schools by what they lack:

-adequate staffing, equipment, financial resources, support services, diversity of coursework and programs, experience and training of teachers and administrators, students lack educational and occupational opportunities, and lower achievement scores are all part of the issue.

A stereotype persists:

-Heriott (1980) states that rural individuals are more likely to:
  -be classified as functionally illiterate
  -score lower on national assessment tests
  -go to schools that spend less on instruction
  -enroll at an older age
  -show slower progress
  -complete fewer years and are less likely to finish four years of high school, get vocational training, have support and personnel services, attend college, enter college, enroll in adult education

Generalizations can be misleading:

-rural youth are a heterogeneous group in backgrounds, cultures and aspirations. They are more like their counterparts in urban areas than other rural ethnic groups.
-reverse migration has an effect on rural population
-most young people have bought the success dream. Black and Hispanic rural youth have lower achievement levels. They start out with fewer advantages and have more difficulty in transmitting advantages gained to the next level of attainment. Therefore they are less likely to expect they can achieve and less likely to act on their preferences. Expectations are even lower for rural Hispanic groups (37% of the less than 25 year old group are functionally illiterate).

We need to keep ethnic subgroup differences in mind when looking at results of national studies:

-The National Assessment of Educational Progress shows some significant results
-Easton (1977) reviewed NAEP results and rural students more like the rest of the country than different
-other studies show rural academic achievement on an upswing, white students may be more involved in this trend than other ethnic groups

Rural students need:

- expanded support services
- student retention programs
- increased career and occupational information and training
- expanded employment opportunities in rural areas

Most rural areas have limited resources so they turn to federal money which comes with strings, rules, and regulations that may be difficult to meet.

Factors important for success:

- innovative local leadership
- involvement of community as a resource

Rural school environments are different than urban environments but some guidance can be taken from successful urban programs:

- rural schools may lack resources but make up for this with spirit of commitment to interdependence with their education system (community involvement)
- federal agencies are becoming more aware of what makes a program successful, specifically the importance of local leadership. Perhaps local and federal interests can be made to coincide better.

Burlingame, M. (1979). Declining enrollments and small rural cities and districts. Education and Urban Society, 11 (3), 313-332.

Major Points:

1. Prevailing theme of rural educational policy is the continuous confrontation with efforts towards consolidation.

2. Values that drive this confrontation not new; consolidationists believe in equality--opponents regard consolidation as an interference on personal freedom, believe small is beautiful

Decline of Small Schools:

-well documented, but exclude data for districts with less than 300 students (affects mid-west)
-in 60's, total number of districts declined 53%
-at the same time smaller districts were down 208%

In Illinois:

-antithesis of isolated rural poverty
-area called rural, but not geographically isolated
-not low on income scale
-rural youth eventually lured away to urban, suburban area because of close proximity
-communities small, but cultural influences predominantly urban
-heterogeneity
-well developed division of labor
-many formally prescribed relationships
-impersonal status symbols

What Happens:

-Limited range of options:
  -cut programs
  -increase in taxes
  -consolidate

Why it Happens:

-those who are on both sides of issue look often at political, not educational, costs or benefits
-those who live in rural areas have chosen the role of minority group members

1. Well-off economically, protected by federal and state legislation, but increasingly worse off in struggle to allocate resources, symbols, and values
   -constantly revise history to meet their needs

   - negative views of those who left

2. Minority group status insures limitations on school and its curriculum
   - emphasize stability, not aspiration
   - excellence stressed only for those things that bring pride to the town
   - welcome teachers from area (how long tolerated by professional groups?)
3. Status of minority group helps explain some of the ambivalence about consolidation
   - future bleak for those who accept minority status
   - difficult to work through legislature because of few rural representatives

There are so few political resources that political battles are constantly lost with the effect being that rural communities are hard pressed to maintain control over local institutions whose aim is to preserve their way of life.

Clark, G. M., & White, W. J. (1985). Issues in providing career and vocational education to secondary-level mildly handicapped students in rural settings. Career Development for Exceptional Individuals, 8 (1), 42-49.

Basic rural information:

Career and vocational education propositions for students with handicaps are frequently added to existing categories or non-categorical instruction programs.

There are two realities:

1. Career/vocational educational programming has not been a priority.
2. Personnel responsible for this area often work in isolation and are aware of how low priorities are.

Topic: Current issues facing administration, vocational, and career personnel in providing programs in rural settings.

Employment: Mildly handicapped are the largest population served. Rural areas have either interrelated or non-categorical settings.

Employment: Secondary through elementary.

Issues that Affect Rural Service Delivery:

-geographic factors, the heterogeneity of the rural population, language barriers, economics, etc.
-resources and education delivery systems stem from human and financial factors.
-vocational education for handicapped students depends on the amount of priority given to it for all students.
-Boyer (1983) states that only one of the 11 national reports on education since 1980 has cited a need to focus on career or vocational programs. Priorities are very low.

Financial Factors:

-rural schools spend less per student and have fewer financial resources.
-administration expenditures and transportation expenses are higher (transportation costs are four times higher per pupil than in urban areas)
-expenditure differences decreased when the state and federal aid went up but employment training and vocational education expenditures are still higher in urban areas. In the south there is a 500% urban bias (Hendler & Reid, 1980).
-less dollars mean less services in urban areas.
-career educational emphasis is a life long issue but vocational education is often given a secondary or post-secondary emphasis.
-career education programs appeared first as part of vocational education.
-there is confusion in focus and money commitment.
-career education funding is getting lower.

Vocational education amendments, 1968, (C & D).
Elementary and secondary education Act Amendment, 1974.
P. L. 95-207 Career Education Incentive Act, 1978.

- the above legislation have allocations that most often go to larger districts where the staff is trained to get funding.
- there are no set-aside funds established for the handicapped population.

Financial Problems:

- transportation costs reduce the dollars available for other things.
- eligibility for vocational education funds has decreased (current limits, low population, and funding formulas, etc.)
- rural schools do not get special funding considerations based on employment levels (they often have lower unemployment, many are self employed).
- available set aside funds for handicapped students are limited due to state and local match regulations.
- the cost per unit of special education services is higher.
- money for staff training is needed.

Human Factors:

Rural communities are conservative, with traditional values, the schools may reflect this conservatism and therefore are resistant to changes that involve program development and resource allocation.

- poverty, housing, employment problems exist but there are not the resources to make it better.
- rural parents are more satisfied with schools, and are less likely to look for new ideas.
- smaller districts cannot support as many courses and programs.
- migrant workers create special needs services such as special education, bilingual considerations, etc, which can tie up funds.
- a lack of community resources that can support and extend career and vocational education.
- there is a limited number of occupational opportunities.

Characteristics of Successful Programs:

- there are several positive rural features such as a good work ethic, mutual support, early exposure to work, and family involvement in community.
- Karsten & Squires (1983). There are four characteristics of strong programs: 1) strong instructional staff, 2) strong administration support (also staff support, well trained persons and variation of job experience, and good materials), 3) efficient community skills, 4) curriculum based on development of independent skills and career relations preparation.
- success is not strongly tied to tangibles but to intangible factors surrounding the staff and its commitment to goals of providing quality career education.
- Karsten & Squires (1983). Successful programs grow from the inside out. They start with a person with an idea, a sense of humor, a willingness to experiment or take a

risk. Others are then caught up and the program gains momentum. Growth has an infectious nature as programs gain strength from the people who contribute. When it becomes impossible to attribute success to a single factor or person, a program is almost assured of continuation despite possible setbacks.

-attitudes of special and vocational educators that focus on disabilities, not abilities, must be addressed because they tend to deal with remediation not vocational needs, and are limiting options for their students.

-teachers of mildly handicapped students need more knowledge and awareness of lifetime career needs, vocational alternatives, and assessment. Good insurance is essential.

-teachers, school boards, and administrators need to be aware of the funding provisions of legislation and how to get funds set aside for their needs.

-career and vocational education programming must be interdisciplinary involving special education, vocational ed., counselors, vocational rehabilitation, all of which can be done through joint planning.

How Do We Implement These Suggestions in Rural Areas?

-through cooperatives, and good staff development.
-we need to understand and counteract constraints.

Darch, C. et al. (1987, August). *Evaluation of the Williamsburg county direct instruction program: Factors leading to success in rural elementary programs*. Williamsburg County, SC: Williamsburg County Public Schools. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 283 652)

Several evaluation formats were used to examine the impact that the Direct Instruction Model had on 600 selected students in Williamsburg County, South Carolina over a 7-year period. The performance of students in the Direct Instruction Model was contrasted with the performance of similar students (on the basis of family income, ethnicity, percent with preschool experience, percent with female head of household, and chronological age) who were taught with the district's usual curriculum materials and methods. Students were tested in the basic skills of reading, mathematics, language, and spelling, and measures of self-esteem were taken. Students were compared on standardized tests of academic achievement, the South Carolina Test of Basic Skills, and retention rates at the end of the 12th grade. The direct instruction students showed significantly higher achievement than the local comparison students. Significantly higher results on affective measures were found as well. This report discusses problems facing rural isolated districts such as Williamsburg County and notes extreme poverty, high incidence of illiteracy, and extremely low academic achievement. Components of the Direct Instruction Model are described including innovative curriculum, increased time engaged in academic tasks, and staff development activities.

Dillman, D. A. (1984). How a national rural policy can help resolve rural problems. The Rural Sociologist, 3 (6), 379-383.

The need for rural development policy is as great or greater than it has ever been.

How rural and urban problems differ:

1) The scale of effects from industrial and population growth is much greater on rural communities.

2) Dependence on one or two industries is greater for rural communities. Rural communities may depend on 1 or 2 dominant industries which leads to fragile economic bases.

3) Extremity of problems are noted for rural areas, there is a greater proportion of poverty (especially with minority groups), inadequate housing and transportation, community services, etc.

4) Small populations are spread over a large area, the need to travel further is great because each small community has only a few of the services people need. Dispersion over a large area makes pockets of poverty less visible and often undealt with.

5) The capacity to respond to grant opportunities is less because of state and federal requirements. Small school districts often miss out on opportunities for state and federal funds and technical assistance.

   -regional ties need to be built
   -districts need to work on organizational capacities for defining and resolving rural concerns

6) We need different requirements for agency problems. When attacking urban and rural problems, agencies need to use different assumptions. Heterogeneity of rural areas lead to special problems. Greater distances make it difficult for people to get involved in services.

7) Protection of natural resource base is necessary for most areas.

8) Commitment of state government to rural issues is hurt due to a general lack of interest of urban dominated legislature.

9) The advent of the information era brings massive new problems to both rural and urban areas. The technology can be made available to help overcome shortcomings and become competitive, but rural educators need to access and utilize technology correctly.

We cannot use the same set of assumptions to attack rural and urban issues, policies are needed.

A natural rural policy could:

- -draw attention to the special problems of rural areas and communities sending a signal to state and federal government
- -help to stabilize rural communities by encouraging diverse economic opportunities
- -earmark funds for small communities that are less able to compete for grants and support
- -recognize that not only are rural and urban problems different but also there is a different set of rural problems

Dodendorf, D. M. (1983). A unique rural school environment. Psychology in the Schools, 20, 99-104.

Little research with rural children has been observational - most has been sociological in nature or evaluated according to educational programs.

Observational study: 34 students in a Nebraska 2-room school.

- -study looked for insights into school environment that may be unique
- -psychologists who will work with clients in rural areas need to be familiar with rural environment
- -conditions that cause different patterns of service were observed

Problems identified: Budget and tax concerns, unqualified teachers, inadequate supplies and resources, outdated materials, homogeneous groups, lack of confidentiality.

Study:

- -the first study used 19 students K-14, 15 students 5-8 to examine the day-to-day effects of rural education
- -the second study used 16 students 3-8 in urban setting, 16 students 3-8 in rural settings and compared differences
- -variables: routine, group work, independence, interdependence, community involvement
- -some routines were different, others remained constant "everyone knows everything" idea is used, for example spelling tests
- -student behavior was the same with the teacher in or out of the room
- -student had some group work included as part of their grade
- -students waited patiently for help from teacher (program needed an aide but money and confidentiality problems prevented this)
- -text books were outdated and portrayed country people as bumpkins
- -lots of group interdependence occurred naturally and not like structured peer tutoring
- -independent work was done, turned in, and redistributed when checked by a student on own initiative
- -parents and visitors were accepted freely without a change in work atmosphere

Rural students were tested with the Metropolitan Achievement Instrument, urban students received the SRA, no significant differences were found in language, math, or science. There was a significant difference in social studies.

Results: researchers felt that the positive qualities of rural schools outweighed the negative qualities and that the values emphasized at school reflected community values. Value congruence between home and school fosters a secure world.

Dolly, J. P., & Page, D. P. (1983). An attempt to increase parental involvement in rural schools. Phi Delta Kappan, 64, 512.

-One study carried out with rural parents
-Parents were unwilling to volunteer, didn't think that students needed extra help

This data is from a federally funded project designed to help low-achievers in rural Southeastern school districts by giving free materials and training to parents.

Assumptions:

-parents willing to help with reading and math
-parents willing to go to training sessions
-parents willing to be paid classroom volunteers
-parents would have a positive attitude.

-338 students, 35 parents came to one training session, 18 came to 5-6 sessions, only 10 volunteered.

-Parents who attended were positive on both pre- and post-test so there was no significant change.

-70 percent refused because they thought that children did not need remediation.

-There was a problem with communication, parents did not believe CTBS scores because they had been getting satisfactory reports from the schools.

-Rural individuals see schools as place where education people make the decisions about their children / then the lack of true communication ruins the chance for parents to know the true picture and to help.

Downey, R. G. (1980, November). Higher education and rural youth. Paper presented at the 2nd Annual Kansas State University Rural and Small School Conference, Manhattan, KS. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 201 459)

Small rural social systems tend to have great impact on the social behavior and performance of rural youth in higher education. The issue is the degree to which rural youth from a social environment requiring active and continuous social involvement can exist in a larger social system which may require more passive and observational modes of social interaction. Evidence suggests that they can cope successfully. Generally, youth from smaller schools (versus larger schools) tend to think their work is more important, take broader roles, have greater skills in social communication, have a greater sense of group cohesiveness, and find their work more meaningful. However, rural youth have limited occupational role models. Consequently, they have limited views of occupational opportunities and tend to select from familiar areas. The general socio-economic level of a student's family is a minor contributor to his chances of remaining in college. The higher the educational level of his parents, the more likely he is to persist in college. Within a single institution, few (if any) differences exist between students from rural versus metropolitan areas in terms of academic performance or persistence. However, rural youth may enter college slightly less prepared by their high school background.

Dunne, F. (1983). Good government vs. self-government: Educational control in rural america. Phi Delta Kappan, 65, 252-256.

There are specific reason why there have been conflicts between the keeping and the running of rural schools.

There is the idea of Jeffersonian democracy v. Hamiltonian democracy.

There are state, local, and federal control issues.

Certain specific reasons offered to maintain rural schools:

- meet needs of constituents fairly well
- levels of satisfaction with the rural schools is extraordinarily high
- we still must remember the Jeffersonian bent of the Constitution
- a nation of citizens and local control is very much a part of this
- economic and political problems would arise if we did not maintain rural areas:
  - balance of population
  - healthy tension
  - local priorities would be lost
  - rural communities hang on to values
  - traditions are passed on

The question is " Does the school do what the community needs?"

Durst, M. (1984). The functions of rural education. A case study of a small-town school. High School Journal, 67, 242-247.

-In 1972, 70-75% of the population favored local schools.

-A prototype was developed in "Heartland" built on local ideals and values

-There is a struggle to maintain these ideals and values and to maintain local control

-An important rural problem is that of balance:
    -it is important that some students stay after high school
    -it is also important that some students leave

-This balance is necessary if the rural area is to maintain a workforce and not overload

-Ethnographic: school and small town maintain the community.

-Hypothesis: the school functions to:
    -prepare most students to leave town
    -encourages leavers and stayers to be aware of urban/rural differences
    -differentially socializes young females (limited option).

-There is a question of maintaining the status quo

-Rural schools need to be a cultural bridge between the urban and the rural lifestyles

-Rural and urban values are becoming more similar--the critical difference is the amount of emphasis placed on major cultural and social values.

-There is an issue of maintaining the rural consciousness

-There is the issue of preparing the students for the future rural settings vs. urban settings (limited curriculum is a problem)

-There is the issue of socialization (especially limited for females)

Edington, E. D. (1987, April). Study of educational aspirations of preparatory school students in Yemen. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association for International Agricultural Education. Washington, DC. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 285 716)

To identify causes for low enrollment in secondary agricultural school in Yemen, the United States Agency for International Development and the Yemen Ministry of Education surveyed 990 preparatory (junior high) students, examining their educational aspirations, differences between rural and urban youth, major influences on student aspirations, and the effect of information regarding agricultural schools on student decisions to attend. In spite of the fact that only 12% of preparatory students in Yemen matriculate in the secondary school, all but seven students surveyed indicated that they expected to attend secondary school. Three-fourths of the students wanted to attend general education school, and the next largest group wanted to attend agricultural schools. Most of those wishing to attend agricultural schools were from rural areas. Students identified their parents as having the greatest influence on decisions about education. Over 90% said they planned to go on to higher education, and most wanted careers in medicine, engineering, or the military. In contrast to student career preferences, Yemen has a great need for technical trained people for teachers at all levels. The Ministries of Information and Education may seriously consider developing programs to communicate the countries needs to the parents and youth of Yemen.

Elliott, J. (1987, April). *Rural students as risk*. Paper presented at the Annual Success for Students At-Risk Conference. Chicago, IL. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 285 708)

Identifying and describing students in rural schools who are at potential risk is the purpose of this study which involved extensive taped interviews with administrators, teachers and students in selected rural schools in Iowa. Various indicators of educational risk in selected rural environments suggest that students are decidedly disadvantaged by geographic isolation and economic decline. Achieving a high level of community support--beginning with formation of an active, positive, cooperative relationship between and among students, teachers, administrators and parents is a necessary step in attaining educational excellence. A collaborative effort with other districts is key to providing a full range of academic, vocational, and extra-curricular activities, and accessing technological advances otherwise unavailable. Curricula must be expanded to prepare students either to remain in their rural communities as contributing citizens, or to leave with confidence and skills. Viable vocational and occupational experiences, high quality personal counseling, and strong counselor--parent partnerships must be available to rural students if they are to maximize career attainment.

Esters, P., & Levant, R. F. (1983). The effects of two parent counseling programs on rural-low achieving children. The School Counselor, 31, 159-166.

Importance of parent counseling programs (known and recognized):

- -help parents to be agents of change
- -parents need help to deliver child management and care skills to prevent multiply handicap-type problems

Purpose: To compare effectiveness of two methods of parent counseling in exchanging the self esteem and academic achievement of low achieving elementary education students.

- -Dinkmeyer & Mckays (Systematic Training for Effective Parenting) STEP - Adlerian program, widely used
- -Gillmore & Gillmore (Self-Esteem Method) SEM eclectic program that is well known in New England

Method:

- -the subjects were parents of 33 low achieving 3rd and 4th graders under 11 years, 4 months old
- -rural subjects of a lower socio-economic class, 17,000 residents that included parents of 24 boys, and 9 girls. There were 3 single parent families and 11 families in which the fathers refused to participate.
- -random assignment to groups after parents matched with respect to status, etc. Pretest and post-test data was gathered.

Groups:

-both groups met for 10, 1/2 hour sessions, held weekly. Both had white female counselors as group leaders and these had similar levels of self esteem.

-SEM method enhanced self-esteem through attention to child's feelings as a fundamental prerequisite for a child's ability to behave productively. Also it helped parents to become more accepting of a child's feelings by counseling being accepting of parents. Special techniques to improve community, self-esteem, define limits, identify developments, and value systems are important. There was a lecture and discussion involving humanistic psychodynamic homework for parents using didactic materials.

-STEP method involved lectures and discussion of systematic training that stresses the theory of Adler & Dreikers which focuses on understanding the purposive nature of a child's behavior. Parents learn to develop responsibility in child by appropriate and natural consequences, not punishment. Parents need more self-confidence. Homework needs to include didactic and multi-media materials.

DV-Academic Achievement, GPA:

-Self-Esteem is measured by Piers-Harris Childrens Self Concept Scale, Coopersmith Behavior Rating form for teachers.

Results:

-academic achievement: significant posttreatment and follow up differences were found as measured by GPA

-self-esteem: post treatment results showed the SEM higher than the STEP on waiting list group, according to the Piers-Harris. Follow up showed the SEM was higher than the waiting list group, according to the Piers Harris.

-both had a significant effect on GPA's that held up for a three month follow-up period

The SEM seems better in enhancing self-esteem. Where both programs were about equal in effect on a child's behavior, the relative stronger effect of the SEM in child's feelings can be attributed to this method emphasizing the domain of feelings. Parents were trained to focus on and accept the child's feelings. Through both the content and process of this method (parent's feelings were attended to by the counselor), modeling the desired parental response and allowing the parents to experience the benefits themselves of such a response were effective methods.

Fardig, D. B., Algozzine, R. F., Schwartz, S. E., Hensel, J. W., & Westling, D. L. (1985). Postsecondary vocational adjustment of rural, mildly handicapped students. Exceptional Children, 52 (2), 115-121.

Non-metropolitan or rural areas do not have a large population and consequently often do not have large industries, public transportation, social welfare agencies, and other resources available in metropolitan areas.

Rural students often have structural and cultural obstacles that deny or effect achievement.

NRP study looks at: Secondary educational background and selected characteristics of former students labeled mildly handicapped. Student data:

- -113 from 4 rural counties
- -40 females, 73 males, 64 black, 49 white, the median age is 19
- -EMH, SLD, & ED students from grades 9-12
- -1 year (at least) in pre-vocational training for grades 9-12
- -have completed 9th grade and part of 10th grade

Study goal:

- -to look at current employment status ie., full-time, part-time, homemaker, unemployed, position, length of time on job, wages, previous employment status, etc.

Discussion:

- -most former special educator's students have completed grade 12
- -students were gainfully employed 57.6% of the time since leaving school
- -no significant relationship between ETI and age, race, etc
- -the highest grade completed was the best prediction of post-school adjustment
- -math and reading levels were somewhat predictive
- -vocational coursework was the least predictive
- -50 earned minimum wage or above
- -several were homemakers with children, husband, and home
- -very few had consistent vocational coursework

Farley, R. (1980). What is rural education? In the past 50 years. Paper presented at the 2nd Annual Kansas State University Rural and Small School Conference. Manhattan, KS. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 201 463)

Since 1930, changes in definitions of "rural" population trends, teacher preparation, educational philosophy, school organization, and curriculum and federal funding have influenced the educational opportunities provided by rural schools. Dedicated leaders in groups such as the National Education Association's Department of Rural Education, the 1939 Educational Policies Commission, the United States Office of Education, the Julius Rosenwald Fund, the Ford Foundation, and the American Association of School Administrators have attempted to improve rural education by identifying specific problems and seeking solutions. Teacher preparation has been improved as high school normal training programs for rural elementary teachers have been eliminated, substandard certification requirements have been upgraded, and inservice programs have been instituted. The progressive philosophy of education popular in the 1930's and 1940's was replaced in the 1950's and 1960's by the community school philosophy, still popular today. School organization has changed dramatically as districts too weak to provide adequate educational programs for a changing rural population have been consolidated at the local or administrative level. The Elementary Secondary Education Act of 1965 has made more federal funds available to rural schools. Rural school improvement efforts should consider rural values, rural-urban differences, the community school concept, and improved instruction methods.

Frith, G. (1981). Paraprofessionals: A focus on interpersonal skills. Education and Training of the Mentally Retarded, 16 (4), 306-309.

Introduction:

A survey of state education agencies that focused on certification, training, and programmatic concerns relative to using paraprofessionals.

Results:

-many of the problems involving paraprofessionals revolved around interpersonal skills
-practice of employing special education paraprofessionals had increased in recent years
-paraprofessionals interact with many people
-formal training programs for teachers and administrators rarely stress supervisory skills specifically aimed at paraprofessional personnel in special education

Purpose:

To discuss the rationale for providing special education paraprofessionals with the necessary interpersonal competencies to effectively contribute to the education of handicapped students.

Some Factors that Influence Interpersonal Interaction of Paraprofessionals:

-the ability of the paraprofessional to contribute to the total instructional program may be largely dependent on his/her interpersonal skills
-channels of communication need to be open in order to facilitate a cooperative effort between teacher and paraprofessional

Conclusion:

Providing special education paraprofessionals with interpersonal skills involves acceptance of the following conclusions.

1. Human interactional patterns that exist within the special education program are highly complex.
2. Most special education paraprofessionals require training in human interaction beyond that which normally exists in their natural personalities if they are to satisfactorily assume the subservient role required in typical job descriptions.
3. Teachers, administrators, related service personnel, and others need training with respect to proper utilization of special education paraprofessionals.
4. Training in interpersonal skills can be achieved through a variety of approaches and personnel; however, a tangible reward system should be a necessary component of such training.

Frith, G. H., & Kelly, P. (1981). The parent/paraprofessional relationship in programs for severely and profoundly retarded children. Education and Training of the Mentally Retarded, 16 (3), 231-234.

Statistics and Purpose:

According to Pickett, between 1976 and 1979 the number of special education paraprofessionals employed by local education agencies increased by 42%. The number of colleges and local education involved in training these personnel and the number of state education agencies that certify them have also grown substantially. This increase has resulted in the need to identify and describe a variety of appropriate roles for them.

The responsibilities of special education paraprofessionals with respect to interacting with parents of severely and profoundly retarded children has not been adequately defined.

The purpose of this manuscript is to focus attention on the importance of developing a positive relationship between parents of severely and profoundly retarded children and the special education paraprofessionals.

Encouraging Parent/Paraprofessional Interaction:

To be effective when working with parents of severely and profoundly retarded children, the paraprofessional must understand and assume the appropriate role as a member of the educational team. The paraprofessional supports the supervising teacher while contributing suggestions as to activities that have been or might be helpful to the child.

The degree of interaction between paraprofessional and parent is determined by the following factors:

-the setting of the training program
-the personality and skill of the paraprofessional in working with children and parents
-the willingness of the parents to work with a paraprofessional
-the philosophy of the supervising teacher and principal
-the needs of the parents
-the mobility of the child
-the location of the home

Planned contact is preferred in which the paraprofessional, teacher, and parents have specific and predefined goals.

The paraprofessional's interaction with parents may include assisting the school social worker in gathering information or collecting diagnostic information from the parents themselves. Paraprofessionals may also be asked to accompany the teacher during home visitations, write notes to parents, prepare informal progress reports, or send home samples of a child's work. These are ways of fostering parental involvement that does not include direct personal contact.

Facilitating the Contribution of the Paraprofessional:

It is important to consider each paraprofessional's interpersonal skills to communicate and to relate. Much of the effectiveness will be attributable to variables such as race, sex, age, socioeconomic status, etc. Matching these variables between paraprofessionals and parents whenever possible should serve to improve data collection.

Certain curriculum areas of an instructional program for severely and profoundly retarded children should not be limited to a six-hour day. In some instances, paraprofessionals could be assigned responsibility in the home to work with parents on an instructional program that was initiated at school.

Some parents may use behavior modification programs. Paraprofessionals could set up a contingency contract based on the parent's rate of participation in the behavior modification programs.

In a home-based program a paraprofessional might work with two or three children or between the school and a single home. This way the paraprofessional can serve as an instructional "conduit" among the teacher, the child, and parents.

School systems that serve preschool severely and profoundly retarded children may find paraprofessionals to be useful in :

-providing orientation sessions
-facilitating parental involvement in a child's training program
-gathering informal diagnostic data
-increasing parental awareness of available community resources

The paraprofessional's responsibility with respect to parental involvement should be well defined by the supervising professional and all information obtained should be kept strictly confidential.

Training Paraprofessionals to Work with Parents:

The ability of paraprofessionals to contribute to parental involvement is directly related to their professional preparation.

Training should include:

-an emphasis on team concept and a discussion of rules and responsibilities of various team members.
-direct parental contact via practicum experiences
-the use of role playing
-the use of paraprofessionals in conducting workshops for parents

Proper training for the rest of the staff is important also so that they can utilize the paraprofessional's ability effectively.

Frith, G. H., Lindsey, J., & Edwards, R. (1981). A non-categorical approach for serving exceptional children of low incidence exceptionalities in rural areas. Education, 101, 276-278.

Problems with Rural Services:

- delivery of services, implementation of mainstreaming among top ten according to SPED administrators-Lamb & Burrello (1979)
- funding, transportation, sparse populations, communication difficulties, procurement of competent personnel-Frith (1977)
- rural flight-educators leave rural areas-Heller (1975)

Problems/Relation to Serving Low Incidence Students:

- magnified in trying to serve low incidence (i.e. blind, deaf, deaf-blind, multiply handicapped:
  - difficulty with personnel
  - difficulty with assessment
  - difficulty with physical plant "barrier-free"
  - difficulty with materials and equipment
  - difficulty with community support

- additional general problems:
  - transportation (distance and modification)
  - lack of "seed money" for capital expenditures
  - staff development problems especially with regular class teachers
  - support services

Model Rural Program:

- Gordon County BOE, rural Northwest Georgia
- implemented Title VI project in 1977
- designed to serve low incidence students in a non-categorical manner (VI, SI, PI, MH)
- uses paraprofessional concept

Method:

- students assigned to regular class in non-categorical manner
- paraprofessionals employed to support special and regular teachers
- inservice provided for all
- resource manual developed during inservice
- REACH OUT-suggestions for maintaining low incidence students in regular classes available from:

  Jacksonville Learning Resource Center
  Jacksonville State University
  Jacksonville, AL 36265
- actual instruction approximate regular class instruction with modifications across

cognitive/academic; social/emotional; psychomotor curricula demands
-Regular educators work closely with professionals, paraprofessionals, support services, parent volunteers
-close working relationship with community agencies

Success:

-good reviews
-based on evidence that paraprofessional concept is appropriate and useful
-service delivery process eliminates some previously identified problems
-serving low incidence students within mainstream

Gear, G. H. (1984). Providing services for rural gifted children. Exceptional Children, 50, 326-331.

The issues in services for the rural gifted children are:

- -sparse numbers
- -geographic spread
- -limited financial and human resources
- -trained teachers
- -competing equities and priorities
- -capacity and commitment to respond

Labelling: There are pros and cons here/the issue of pressure on the child/the issue of high expectations/the problem of making one curriculum for all gifted children when the group is represented by members with different skills and learning styles.

- -In rural districts, there is a need to shift from sorting students into groups to defining student's instructional needs.

Criterion: Assessment is an issue/there is a need for a broadened concept with the intent of providing necessary services not assuring group membership/the focus needs to be on the educational needs of the child.

Assorted Services: Suited to child's needs, abilities, interests, curricularly challenging, encouragement built in, with the opportunity to develop individual potential.

Successful Programs: encompass the best of the school and the community.

- -identify existing practices to accommodate the gifted
- -look at existing programs that with modifications could be good for the gifted
- -explore new programs to develop and expand the capacity of the school

Suggestions:

- -advanced placement classes
- -cooperating programs with higher ed
- -early admission
- -curricular compression
- -workstudy
- -supervised research projects
- -out-of-level tasks
- -adjusted assignments and requirements
- -individual counseling
- -group counseling
- -special seminars
- -accelerated classes
- -mentors

Teacher Role Changes:

- role changes for both regular and special education personnel
- limited staffing-additional roles for some
- emphasis on the importance of good relationships with the students
- collaboration of all school personnel
- teachers function as positive role models, encourage, and counsel
- teachers are positive about the rural community

Guilliford, A. (1985). The one-room school lives. Principal, 65 (5), 6-12.

In 1984, there were approximately 835 one room schools in the United States.

- -360 were in Nebraska
- -100 in Montana and South Dakota
- -Common with Amish, Hutterites, on islands, in the plains, in Alaska, etc.

Problems are:

- -isolation for teachers
- -low pay
- -inadequate social opportunities
- -extra duties
- -unable to hire quality teachers
- -no colleagues

According to Alan Zelter, Dean of Education, Director of the Rural Education Center, Western Montana College, in the National Rural Project Newsletter, the largest problem for new rural teachers is the reality of rural living. There are problems with loneliness, cultural deficiency, access to services, weather, etc. There is also an implied demand to conform to community values, but there are also some chances for innovation and independence.

Students of rural schools may: (pros and cons included)

- -score lower on standardized tests
- -have lower motivation to go further in school
- -have problems with getting used to larger schools

Bettelheim sees rural as better than urban, peer tutoring, forced mainstreaming, individual education, etc.

Ivan Muse, Professor of Education and Director of Rural Teacher Program at Brigham Young University.

- -of nearly 17,000 public school districts, more than 13,000 are rural
- -32% have enrollments of less than 300

James Jess (l977) only 6 of 2000 teacher training institutions had rural teacher education programs.

Technology is a plus to rural education/ it can compensate for isolation

Positive points are:

-small class size
-individual instruction
-peer help
-involved parents
-community involvement

Hansen, K. H. (1987, August). Distance education and the small school: Policy issues. Paper prepared for the Chief State School Officers of the Northwest and Pacific. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 287 637)

The capabilities of a distance education system to enhance instructional programs of small schools by providing equity and increasing quality of educational opportunity, providing access to subject matter and subject matter experts, and providing interaction and joint activities with students in other schools are of sufficient merit to formulate and adopt educational policies which will give positive direction as small schools move forward. The educational policy options from among which educational decision makers may choose include preserving the small school as a conscious educational choice, capitalizing on delivery systems, preparing teachers to use distance education, allocating instructional resources, assigning responsibilities for material/media selection, simplifying logistics, and nurturing partnerships. Although most policies must be determined by local school boards, state educational units play a crucial role in influencing these policies by the way they meet responsibilities in determining state patterns of fiscal support, employment of statewide curriculum standards, regulations governing teacher certification/recertification, accreditation policies, provision of technical assistance to local districts, and ability to be a persuasive leadership force in articulating state educational goals. Thus the productive use of distance education will require not only sound and informed policy choices at each level independently but also joint and cooperative policy determinations.

Harbaugh, M. (1985). Small schools with big ideas. Instructor, 95, 138-140.

Pros and Cons of Small Schools:

-they lack large-scale administration, but nourish professional autonomy
-they lack staffs of subject-area specialists, but allow small classes, individual attention, and very warm relationships
-they lack some in-school resources, but stand at the heart of their communities and develop their own innovative ideas for enrichment

Collegiality and Professional Autonomy:

-principals are close at hand because they teach
-teachers do a lot of sharing of ideas and consulting
-teachers are mostly responsible for ordering new materials

Individual Attention and Teacher Accountability:

-many rural schools stress the importance of student self-image and responsibility for their own learning
-the curriculum is organized around the idea that children learn at different speeds
-the teachers can read individually everyday with every child

Rich Experiences and Warm Relationships:

-there are more warm relationships between students and teachers in rural schools than urban schools
-in a small community the school staff sees the students outside the class

New Methodologies and Long Term Continuity:

-computer programming is valued when it provides information that teachers have difficulty pulling together with local resources
-many teachers use computers to help with administration jobs

Haughey M. L., & Murphy, P. J. (1981). Are rural teachers satisfied with the quality of their work life? Education, 104 (1), 56-66.

Wickson, (1983):

Job Satisfaction	Job Dissatisfaction
-sense of achievement	-lack of achievement
-work itself	-inappropriate school policy
-interpersonal relationship with students	-unsatisfying administrators
	-adverse effects on personal life
-responsibility	-unfavorable work conditions

All such studies are subject to definitional conceptual measurement limitations.

This type of information, useful to school boards, administrators, teachers, and the general public, help to define the problems.

If teachers are discontented it will be reflected in their performance and in the quality of learning for students.

Rural Issues:

- -high mobility (Cross, Bandy, & Gleadow, 1980) is caused by lack of privacy and geographical isolation
- -what are the causes of rural teacher dissatisfaction?
- -if these problems can be neutralized will rural teachers exhibit more stable employment patterns?

Study: How satisfied with quality of work life were teachers in rural British Columbia? Look at satisfaction with work items associated with:

- -work conditions
- -teaching related matters
- -student related matters
- -occupation related matters
- -1148 rural teachers were included in the study, 528 (46%) responded

Results: 22% of the teachers have a moderate or high satisfaction with jobs.

Working conditions:

- -conditions are OK including salary, sick and maternity leave, numbers of hours worked, and number of hours taught per day

-no provisions for sabbatical leave, consultation between administrators and teachers related to working conditions, number of hours of non-teaching duties
-32% of the teachers are greatly dissatisfied with the amount of preparation time given to them

Teaching related matters:

-interpersonal relationships with collegues and administrators, opportunities for decision-making at the school level, and professional autonomy are all positive elements
-freedom to select subject matter, teaching methods and materials
-class size, teaching assignments and grade level
-no decision-making at the district level, personnel policies, related to promotion and evaluation, lack of advice, physical conditions of class, preparation time, support services, aides

Student related matters:

-relationships with students, attitudes of students to learning, general behavior of students, ability to deal with students from different cultures was acceptable
-availability of diagnostic services and support services was not acceptable

Occupation related matters: Yielded sources of great satisfaction and substantial dissatisfaction.

-social relationships, intellectual stimulation, and a sense of achievement was acceptably provided by recognition of colleagues. Professional affiliation and professional esteem are important to rural teachers.
-society's perception of teaching, status of teachers, attitudes of society, parents attitudes toward education, public esteem and public affiliations can hinder professional improvement.

Discussion:

-many rural teachers are dissatisfied with the quality of work life
-only 22% were moderately to highly satisfied
-dissatisfaction has an adverse effect on climate and environment of the school
-low esteem problems can lead to bad school/community relations
-teachers need to feel important as persons (self-concept), and be recognized as respectable, competent professionals (professional-concept)
-policies should take these problems into consideration
-we need more professional, empirical information

Haughey, M. L., & Murphy, P. J. (1983). Profile of a rural school teacher in British Columbia. Education Counselor, 23, 4-9.

Most British Columbia citizens live in medium size rural communities. These are growing at the expense of small rural towns and villages. In medium size communities, new immigration gives towns a multi-ethnic character.

In small rural towns there are mainly 1, 2, and 3 room schools. The basics (i.e., reading, writing, arithmetic, etc.), citizenship, technology and concepts of social reform are taught.

Usually small rural schools serve as a center for community activities, a forum for discussing public issues, social center, and adult education center.

Schools play an important role in maintaining communities.

Rural teachers: are usually beginning teachers with limited experience, immigrants, teachers who enjoy rural life, and those who had problems in the inner-city.

-teacher mobility is high even in present economic climate and tight job market.

Rich school districts: tend to retain teachers longer.

-upper income, 52% retained after 5 years
-middle income, 37% retained after 5 years
-lower income, 23% retained after 5 years

Advantages:

-knowing students well
-belonging to small town
-opportunity for individual instruction

Disadvantages:

-lack of privacy
-isolation
-lack of support services
-inadequate planning time

Havlicek, L., & Kelly, P. (1982). A statewide network for training special education paraprofessionals. Exceptional Children, 48 **(6), 535-36.**

Introduction:

The use of paraprofessionals has grown. It has helped alleviate the shortage of professional special education teachers and offered employment to unemployed individuals.

Training has become more important as the field expands. Numerous programs have been initiated at community colleges and at a few four year colleges. Most of these programs are in cooperation with local school districts and are narrow in both geographic area served and in subject matter. A major exception is the Kansas statewide training program centered in the State Department of Education and involving voluntary participation by local district/ cooperative personnel.

Major Results:

- -Over 90% of the respondents agreed that paraprofessionals play a major educational role.
- -The delegation of teacher/supervisor-paraprofessional responsibilities was not clearly defined by the respondents. However, the majority believed that the teacher should be solely responsible for professional tasks and should spend more time with the more difficult children.
- -Concepts of the one teacher/one paraprofessional classroom and education team was supported by over 80% of the respondents.
- -Dependability, cooperation, and adaptability were the personal characteristics most highly desired for paraprofessionals.
- -The three most important skills were working with children, interpersonal relations, and understanding the characteristics of special education children.
- -A paraprofessional's most commonly performed duties were assisting with group educational activities, educating individual children, and preparation of classroom materials.
- -There was a general feeling that school districts should provide time and facilities for inservice paraprofessional training.

Recommendations:

- -Teachers and paraprofessionals should attend the same workshops.
- -Workshops for paraprofessionals should be conducted on a local, regional, and statewide basis.
- -The content of the training programs should include units on teaching methods, working with children, interpersonal relations, the characteristics of special education children, and classroom management.

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-A state media package should be developed to instruct how the components can be used readily at the local level in paraprofessional and teacher workshops.
-Administrators need to be aware of the teaching responsibilities being assumed by paraprofessionals.
-There appears to be a need to include a unit on working with paraprofessionals in the special education teacher preparation curriculum.

Hayden, L. K., & McLaughlin, T. F. (1987). Effects of a study skills curriculum with rural high school learning disabled students. Techniques: A Journal for Remedial Education and Counseling, 3, 162-171.

The effects of a study skills curriculum for secondary learning-disabled students was examined over a period of 2 successive school years. Subjects included 6 boys and 4 girls, who ranged from 14 to 18 years of age. The program was introduced at different points in time, which yielded a multiple baseline design across students. Pre-test and post-test data on basic skills were measured with the Woodcock Reading Mastery Test, Key Math Diagnostic Arithmetic Test, and the spelling subtest of the Wide Range Achievement Test. Attendance and grade point averages were examined. Overall grade point averages improved for 8 of the 10 students during the study skills program. Consistent gains were demonstrated in reading, with the largest in word and passage comprehension. Variable gains were found in math, spelling, and attendance. An attitudinal survey given to students, teachers, parents and administrators indicated that positive changes had occurred as a result of the study skills program.

Helge, D. (1983). Addressing the report of the commission on excellence in education...from the rural perspective. Murray, KY: American Council on Rural Special Education (ACRES). (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 234 939)

Background:

This paper is a formal request that the National Commission on Excellence in Education recognize the differences between rural and non-rural schools and to provide appropriate strategies for implementing Commission recommendations.

Factors:

Factors of rural schools which should be considered by policymakers are noted:

1. Rural schools include 67% of all schools and serve 33% of all school children
2. Rural areas have higher poverty levels and are growing in population without a growth in tax bases
3. Rural schools serve a greater population of handicapped children
4. Rural schools have serious staffing inadequacies and suffer from problems of isolation, high personnel attrition, and inadequate computer resources
5. Preservice training programs do not motivate or prepare students for rural teaching

Recommendations For Policymakers:

-recognition of diverse rural subcultures
-support for innovative teacher training programs addressing areas of critical need
-development of career ladders and merit pay systems (to retain quality rural personnel)
-support for essential inservice training programs
-adequate support for rural special education services
-investigation and support for alternative service delivery systems
-investigation of technological alternatives
-adequate data collection regarding the quality of rural education

Helge, D. (1984). Models for serving rural students with low-incidence handicapping conditions. Exceptional Children, 50, 313-324.

Historically students with mild and moderate handicaps are not identified in rural areas or they are served in the regular class. There is an acceptance by teachers and other students.

Rural areas may have a philosophy of "taking care of one's own" combined with a rural dislike of labels and a tendency to make due with resources that are available.

Low-Incidence Handicaps: Conditions (such as hearing impaired, emotionally disturbed, visually impaired, orthopedically handicapped, severely mentally handicapped, other health impaired, etc.) typically had no services available, and students were placed in residential facilities.

-After PL 94-142, however, there were incredible changes. There was an increase of 47% in numbers of low-incidence handicapped identified and served from 1975-1980. Most districts are trying to serve students in the home district or cooperative.

Inadequacy of Traditional Service Models:

-the standard continuum is not available
  (i.e. residential------------------------regular class)
-there are geographical problems
-there is no one service delivery that is the one

We need to look at certain considerations:

-the relation of the district governing system to external resources
-the population sparsity
-the distance of students to services
-geographic and climatic barriers
-language spoken
-cultural diversity
-the economic lifestyle of the community
-community communication and power structure (i.e. formal/informal)
-ages of the students
-types and levels of severity of disability
-history of special education services
-cost efficiency
-current available resources
-expertise and attitude of teachers

We need to look at these considerations alone and also at their force in combination with each other and with certain variables that possibly can be manipulated such as:

- -equipment
- -financial systems
- -transportation
- -parent involvement
- -facilities
- -staff development programs
- -staff for services
- -parent training
- -community involvement
- -community support
- -government system
- -interagency collaboration.

A planner must look at the variables which are most problematic and address those first and acknowledge those that cannot be changed.

Some examples of different approaches are:

- -state funded intermediate educational units
- -statewide network of itinerant specialists
- -statewide model to provide consulting services for teachers
- -statewide interdisciplinary team model
- -statewide model to deal with cultural differences
- -cooperatives
- -non-categorical resource room

To Identify the model:

- -needs assessment
- -resource survey of personnel and competencies
- -identify and link needs with resources

Helge, D. (1980). National research comparing rural special education delivery systems before and after implementation of the education of all handicapped children's act. Murray, KY: Murray State University, Ky. Center for Innovation and Development. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 200 385)

Findings:

Major findings are presented by a national comparative study with two objectives:

1. To identify performance of rural special education service delivery systems prior to the 1975 enactment of PL 94-142 and again during the 1979-1980 school year in providing a free, appropriate education for all handicapped children with parent involvement and support.
2. To identify facilitating and hindering factors which operate to determine the success or failure of district/cooperative compliance with PL 94-142.

Data:

Data represent responses from administrators and educators from 43 special education cooperatives and 32 school districts in 17 states via 2-day site visits and telephone interviews.

Results:

Results deal with various categories of handicapped students identified and served:

-alternate instructional arrangements, roles, and responsibilities
-diagnostic, vocational, and other services
-changes in organizational structures
-interagency agreements for services
-major problems

Conclusion:

Performance improvements in rural special education programming and services are termed phenomenal. A national initiative for a rural teacher education program and more federal funding are deemed necessary to ameliorate many of the barriers to full implementation of PL 94-142 in rural schools.

Helge, D. (1981). Problems in implementing comprehensive special education programming in rural areas. Exceptional Children, 47 (7), 514-520.

67% of all schools in the nation are in rural areas. The majority of unserved and underserved handicapped children live in rural areas. Traditional implementation problems are compounded because of different community characteristics.

Innovations may be seen as external entities there to impose change but do not: 1) take strengths into consideration, 2) adequately assess community characteristics, 3) realize the need for service delivery because of community differences.

NRP study: Three primary hindering problems exist.

-teacher recruitment and retention
-rural attitudinal problems
-problems based on terrain characteristics

Problems emanate from tradition bound environments and are exacerbated by geographic and climatic conditions of remote isolated areas.

Cultural Problems	Geog./Climate Problems	SES Problems
language	road barriers	low tax base
cultural differences	mountains	suspicious of federal & state interference
resistance to change	distance	migrants
econ. and class diffs.		recruit & retain teachers

Other problems:

-local organizations lacking in Missouri, Arkansas, and Alaska for example
-rural parents feel schools are experts
-lack of local services

The most frequently mentioned areas of difficulty were provisions of services for implementation of least restrictive environment concepts, individualized education program (IEP) development, and insuring parental involvement and procedural safeguards.

Helge, D. (1984). Successful rural family-professional relationships. Rural Special Education Quarterly, 5, 4-5.

Family involvement is essential for program success:

- Families are resources for program follow-through.
- Families can supply new information to professionals.
- Effective family communication systems increase the level of support for special education in rural communities.
- A typical student/teacher relationship, if it is a close one, can benefit everyone.

Problems: NRP & ACRES research shows factors that inhibit family/teacher interactions.

- Rural community values and morals are different. Many are reluctant to become involved with school personnel. They see them as authority figures.
- Many parents are unaware of rural teachers.
- Most rural communities lack resources, ie., support groups.
- Vast distances impede travel.
- Adolescents leave home very early. Parents lack ownership and responsibility for such children.
- The financial concerns of medical costs, special equipment, and babysitter are prohibitive
- Respite care is difficult to find, contributing to problems in family cohesiveness.

Successful strategies:

- Social ties. There is a need to establish positive rapport with parents using non-threatening social contacts to discuss things, remembering to visit first and discuss business later.
- Teachers that get involved in community activities will get more community support.
- Teachers that get involved in home visits will get more support from parents.

Non-School Personnel:

- Discussion and support groups that are led by parents have more success than those led by professionals.
- Messages sent by non-school people ie., mail carriers.
- School personnel should work with other social service agencies.
- There should be joint advocacy groups.
- Arrange meetings of parents with different foci and sharing of ideas.
- Work on having discussions with parents of handicapped children to counsel other parents of newborn handicapped children.
- Educate local residents regarding the needs of handicapped children and the local resources available.

Family:

-Involve the siblings with extended families. Bring in reticent parents if possible
-Involve families in designing unique special education strategies.

Technology:

-Technical device scan includes CB radios, answering machines, etc.
-TV telecommunications systems should be coordinated with teaching materials for parents.
-Videotapes and cassettes can be used.
-Teacher visits can be done via technology.
-Green Thumb Network is a program that is in use. It is part of CompuServe services of the County Extension Agencies.

Parent-Community Communication:

-Communication books should be sent home.
-School newsletters should be sent out.

Family Resources that are Available Through ACRES:

-Modules
-Newsletters
-Family Involvement Task Force

Helge, D. (1984). Technologies as rural special education problem solvers. Exceptional Children, 50, 351-359.

Use of technologies in rural school is increasing, assisting rural schools in dealing with long-distances, professional isolation, etc.

1983 NRP Study: Study of 200 districts, most have at least one type of electronic technology available with lowest levels in the deep South and in BIA schools:

- only looking at interactive use of micros
- micros are more accessible in rural areas
- satellites in remote areas
- uses: instructional support and applications=72%
    managerial applications=42%
    in-service=8%

The four primary uses of technology to solve rural education problems:

I. Instructional Support
- cooperatively manage instruction, administer and evaluate tests, etc., keep records, etc.
- access to more curricular offerings
- frees up teacher to work individually with students
- testing, IEP development, curriculum development
- resource and information systems, SPECIALNET, Rural BB (NASDSE)
- drill, reinforcement
- word processing
- communication and collaboration between agencies
- support to rural families

II. Instructional Applications
- CAI, interactive, direct instruction
- Kurzweil, etc.
- one and two way TV
- mobile vans
- state/national telecommunication
- help develop career alternatives

III. Management Tools
- exchange data, update files, keep records, budgets, etc.
- access to technology that only urban districts had previously
- staff differentiation, share personnel via telecommunication
- promote staff retention, cut professional isolation, etc.

IV. Staff Development Applications
- satellite inservice/didactic or interactive
- information access

Problems with Implementation:

I. State of Art Problems
- little knowledge of special education by programmers
- little knowledge of rural issues and problems by programmers
- incompatible equipment
- poor training
- satellites and FCC regulations
- downtime/cost/access

II. Staff Development Needs
- staff illiteracy and fears
- resistance to change
- unrealistic expectations
- problem with 40% attrition rates

III. Fiscal Problems
- front end costs
- telecommunication costs
- innovations
- computer experts
- initial costs low when compared to the benefits

IV. Parent/Community Attitudes
- tradition/personal contact
- technology an alien influence
- need to work for assistance
- if neglect parents then program fails

Suggestions for Use and Initiating Use:
- seek external financial aid, corporate and foundation donations
- seek hardware, software, training, and follow-up
- seek local business and civic aid
- stress good PR and tax benefits

Consider local rural culture and norms: personalize use of new technologies/generate support/use existing grapelines.

Create community understanding and support: sell to community, hands on evidence, show positive benefits in information society, and show the results of the new job

Involve teachers in planning: teacher initiated plans are better accepted, staff planning for approach and training, meet with other rural teachers and share data base, start small and be efficient, and implement district-wide.

Build staff skills: 1)desensitize, 2)show that interaction with students will continue, and 3)show needs to teacher training institutions.

Ensure student participation: technology is readily available, career opportunities, etc., and increase curricular offerings.

Successful Models:

- ACRES Rural Bulletin Board (NASDSE)
- National Rural Independent Living Project-Murray State
- Instructional programming
- Parent training and communication
- Data gathering
- Increase curricular offerings
- Staff costs and labor intensity
- Students stay in community
- Serve homebound
- Challenge the gifted

Helge, D. (1984). The state of the art in rural special education. Exceptional Children, 50, 294-305.

Rural Schools are Unique:

Negatives:

- higher poverty levels
- greater percentage of handicapped students
- lower tax base
- services cost more
- transportation problems
- personnel problems

Positives:

- high trust factor
- close family ties
- sense of community

-There is a diversity in rural schools/rural subcultures vary tremendously.

-There is diversity in geographic and size ranges.

-Key variables are population density-topography-community and district variables (i.e., each change in variables has repercussions and leads to different needs).

Inconsistent definitions:

-Not consistently applied, no definitions or requirements for gathering rural data, often rural data is not used, can't define solely by population numbers

SEP-NRP Definition (Used in NRP study 78-83)

number of inhabitants fewer than 150 per square mile or when located in counties with 60% or more of population living in communities no larger than 5000. Districts with more than 10,000 students or in a SMSA are not rural.

- rural communities with the same population vary with sub-cultures
- rural and urban characteristics can be thought of as a continuum

Need for Quality Research:

- little data until late 70's on rural education or rural special education
- rural special education services must be individually designed
- beware of small sample studies
- avoid inappropriate generalizations
- avoid claims that this is "the plan" for special education

Service Delivery:

- 92% increase in numbers of handicapped students identified and served since PL 94-142
- Many services, OT,PT, SMH in place for the first time
- Problems:
    - recruiting and retaining qualified staff
    - funding problems
    - long distances between schools and services
    - cultural differences
    - resistance to change
    - transportation
    - support services
    - the interpretation of PL 94-142

Major Problems at this time:

- funding inadequacies
- transportation
- low-incidence populations

Causes of these are:

- fiscal inflation
- increased number of students
- insufficient time since PL 94-142 to experiment and implement
- revenue shortfalls, etc.

Personnel Needs:

- low-incidence/itinerant positions
- recruitment and retention problems directly related to the description of special education and support personnel needed
- only 17% of the districts had adequate number of special education teachers
- 92% frequently used emergency certification and temporary certification and the teachers were not well qualified for their positions

Effects of teacher certification guidelines: too specialized for rural areas/need more non-categorical people to work with a variety of low-incidence students/some states looking at certification requirements responsive to rural needs.

Inadequate preservice training: institutions rarely consider specific rural needs and circumstances--97% of teachers said that they were not well trained to work specifically with rural handicapped students--only 10% said preservice was adequate for rural work.

Anticipated problems: funding, recruitment, retention, future political actions are seen as inequitable for rural areas, technology issues, and ethics of and inequitable distribution

NRP Identified Concerns:

-goal displacement from child to cost efficiency
-cumbersome bureaucracy
-separate fiscal status of LEA and cooperatives
-relationships between coops and districts and accountability of personnel
-abilities of shared personnel to cover large distances, control staff
-district may abrogate own responsibility and put all on coop
-itinerants, etc. find problems with acceptance
-accountability systems difficult to detect, differ from original plan
-parent involvement and community suffers as services moved from local school
-quality of services inconsistent, staff competency, staff development
-hidden agendas in coops, each district feels responsible to own community

Policy Recommendations:

-adopt consistent definition of rural
-mandate routine data collection at the state and federal level
-assess data of differences in rural/non-rural education and funding inequities
-enhance federal commitment to PL 94-142 and implementation in rural areas; watch dollars
-recognize the diversity of rural sub-cultures
-federal and state support of innovative teacher training programs
-address serious personnel shortages
-encourage collaboration SEA and higher education facilities
-devise appropriate personnel preparation systems
-have universities advise students of areas of critical need
-federal and state levels, look at career ladder, link positions and teachers
-address certification issues, generic and specialized
-comprehensive inservice training
-support investigation and information dissemination concerning alternative service delivery models
-support technological alternatives
-motivate corporate gifts

Hobbs, D. (1981). Rural education: The problems and potential of smallness.
The High School Journal, 64, 292-298.

Background:

Rural education has changed over the years. One major change has been consolidation. However, while consolidation had a significant effect on rural education, it did not serve to produce parity with urban schools and a gap still exists. Consolidation was strongly encouraged by professionals in the 50's and 60's in view of the move of young people to the cities. During this time, a variety of social services were also consolidated with the increased cost of getting to the services not a consideration since energy was cheap. Times, however, have changed. Consolidation does not appear to be the best solution and it is necessary to think of other options that produce more equitable and relevant educational opportunities for rural students.

Rural 70's:

In 1966 information in the National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty report supported the fact that there was a movement of individuals from the rural areas of the country to the cities. Shortly after, however, it was apparent that this migration had slowed down and in some parts of the country even turned around. The increases in the 1980 census are due to the fact that some people are moving to rural areas and that the rural young are choosing not to move to urban areas. Three simultaneous economic trends have supported this turnaround:

- -a greater growth in industry in non-metropolitan areas
- -more people are driving farther to work
- -many retirees are relocating in rural areas because of lower costs.

This trend, while it may be transient, has focused a great deal of interest on rural issues.

Rural Education/General Information:

There is a problem with data available on rural education because of the definition of "rural" that is utilized (rural v. non-metropolitan). Two good sources are:

Fratoe, F. Rural Education and Rural Labor Force of the Seventies
Economics, Cooperatives and Statistics Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture.

Sher, J., & Rosenfeld, S. Public Education in Sparsely Populated Areas of the United States. National Institute of Education.

These sources and others (70' and early 80's) indicate that:

- -32 percent of all elementary and secondary students are in non-metro schools
- -nearly 12,000 of the 16,500 school districts are non-metro
- -of the nearly 12,000 non-metro districts, 70 percent have less than 1200, 54 percent have less than 600 and 62 percent operated two or fewer schools
- -non-metro schools spend about 80 percent per student of urban and suburban districts
- -non-metro schools spend twice as much on transportation as do their counterparts

- -the five largest urban states have teacher salaries 50 percent higher than the 5 most rural
- -generally lower salaries effect teacher shortage (i.e., midwest)
- -non-metro schools get less money from local sources and more money from the state
- -non-metro schools lag behind in support services (i.e., 45% have SPED v. 63% suburban and 86% urban) same holds for guidance counselors, audio-visual personnel, preschool staff, kindergarten teachers, librarians, psychologists, paras, etc.
- -rural students generally do not score as well on various measures of academic achievement
- -less rural students plan to attend college, more plan to attend vocational school

(Findings of this type are most probably related to the educational services available in non-metro areas, as well as the socio-economic level of the community, etc.)

Problems/Options:

Despite consolidation most rural schools are still too small in both student numbers and resource bases to afford all the prescribed education services. The advantages of getting larger by consolidation to be able to afford these types of service have now been affected by the cost of transportation.

- -Rural schools need to investigate alternative instructional methods, non school bound, etc.
- -Rural schools need to attract policy makers and professional educators to rural issues
- -Changes need to be considered in teacher certification "generalist"
- -Colleges need to emphasize the unique problems of teaching in a rural area
- -Salaries are an issue
- -Shared services, cooperatives, intermediate units, etc.
- -The use of technology, microcomputers, telecommunications
- -The use of the community as an educational resource and learning laboratory

Hofmeister, A. M. (1984). Technological tools for rural special education. Exceptional Children, 50, 344-349.

Developing technology associated with the information age holds considerable promise for rural special education.

Information orientation: information transmission central to many problems of rural education, instruction and administration practice of education often based on communication among individuals; many of these are less effective because of problems of time and distance. There is a potential in the information age to overcome these problems.

I. Videotext- any system that makes computer stored information available via computer screen or a printing terminal.

-interactive-through phone lines, terminal keyboard, screen, adapted TV, printer, or anything that allows indepth searches through large amounts of information
-electronic mail-messages sent and stored until reader wants them
    -CompuServe/Source-large information bases, ERIC, etc.
    -SPECIALNET-national
    -State and local systems
-non-interactive-associated with TV signals, information available is limited, you can search and select, but not add

II. The Electronic Cottage, Toffler, Third Wave, I979

Problems and Issues:

-Participation in the technology: the potential exists but children adapt better than teachers, teacher trainers and administrators.
-Balance between electronic and personal contact: can't replace all other forms of communication
-Fiscal resources: equipment costs, etc.
-Availability and use: 1)it is there, but is it used, 2)devise systematic and productive ways to use, and 3)teacher training, parent involvement and training necessary.

Universal Excellence:

-a goal and motivator for many early researchers in teaching machines
-CAI is still more vision than substance
-little evidence that existing CAI programs will make a dramatic addition to our instructional tools

Hollinger, C. L., & Sarvis, P. H. (1984). A comparison of the PPVT-R and WISC-R with rural children referred for assessment. *Psychology in Schools*, *21*, 97-101.

The present study investigated the relationship between the Revised Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT-R) and the WISC-R for a naturally occurring sample of rural children referred for assessment (N=53). The results indicated that the PPVT-R was highly correlated with WISC-R scale and subtest scores. Examination of a subsample of developmentally handicapped students revealed substantial reduction in correlational relationships as a function of reduced sample size and restricted range of general ability. While the PPVT-R was found to underestimate all three WISC-R scale scores, the discrepancy between the PPVT-R standard scores and the WISC-R Performance Scale score was the only statistically significant underestimation. Results are discussed in terms of prior research findings and implications for interpretation.

Hollinger, C. L., & Sarvis, P. H. (1984). Interpretation of the PPVT-R: A pure measure of verbal comprehension? Psychology in Schools, 21, 34-41.

The present study examined WISC-R scale, factor, and subtest scores in relationship to PPVT-R standard scores in order to test hypotheses regarding abilities measured by the PPVT-R. For a naturally occurring sample of rural children referred for assessment (N=51), the results of direct and stepwise regression analyses indicated that, while verbal comprehension abilities may contribute most to successful performance on the PPVT-R, perceptual organization abilities also play a significant though less substantial role in the child's performance on the PPVT-R. While Vocabulary scaled scores accounted for 63% of the variance, addition of Object Assembly and Picture Arrangement scaled scores accounted for an additional 11% of the observed variance in PPVT-R performance. Students for whom the PPVT-R overestimated WISC-R Full Scale performance differed significantly from students for whom the PPVT-R underestimated their WISC-R performance only on the WISC-R Arithmetic subtest. Implications for interpretation of the PPVT-R are discussed.

Horn, J. G. (1982, May). Excellence through creative recruitment and retention of staff for rural and small schools. Paper presented at the Rural Education Seminar: "Ensuring Excellence in Education for Rural America". Washington, DC. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 215 807)

Introduction:

There is not any one thing or any one group that can solve all the problems involved in staffing rural and small schools. It is quite common to find a bimodel distribution of teaching faculty in rural and small schools--those with less than 3 years and those with more than 10 years of experience. It could be inferred that either recruitment strategies and hiring criteria are inappropriate, or there are factors that cause a sizable group to leave teaching in that district in the early years of their career. While the problems are not unique to rural schools, even one unfilled position in a rural school has a dramatic effect on the educational program and the children at that school.

Suggestions:

There are many intervening factors and little research in the area. These suggestions could help:

-a national and state priority for development of qualified teachers for all schools should be established
-teacher training institutions should establish identifiable programs for rural teaching
-the profession should accept its responsibility for providing services to students regardless of their location
-networks of persons in all job categories should be developed to reduce the feeling of professional isolation among rural and small school teachers

Illback, R. J., & Ellis, J. L. (1981). Evaluation of special education in rural settings. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association. Los Angeles, CA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 209 620)

Background:

School psychologists who work in rural areas face difficult problems because of the setting in which they practice. Traditional models for delivering psychological services in urban and suburban schools are not typically generalizable to rural service delivery. Rural school districts tend to be closed and rigid, reflecting the nature of the community structure. School management may rely heavily on tradition and attempts to promote innovations are often met with opposition. Monetary constraints are faced by nearly all rural schools. These conditions make the implementation of special education services in rural settings difficult.

Rural SPED Problems:

Rural areas have problems related to the:

- recruitment and retention of qualified staff
- community suspicion of outside interference and resistance to change
- geographical problems

Rural Psych Problems:

The practice of rural school psychology faces similar problems.

- The rural school psychologist must be a program planner and evaluator taking a multi-level, multi-dimensional perspective.
- The rural practitioner must engage in needs assessment, program planning and development, implementation, and outcome evaluations.

Despite potential problems and implications for training, rural school psychologists, in order to be effective must adopt innovative methods of practice.

Additionally, training programs must consider the settings in which graduates will work and the skills they will need to function effectively when deciding about training content and focus.

Johnson, L. C. (1984). Non-metropolitan service delivery revisited: Insights for a dozen years of participant observation. Human Services in the Rural Environment, 9 (2), 21-25.

This is a review of the author's research concerning the nature of service delivery systems in non-metropolitan communities.

-social work view
-12 year study
-primarily in South Dakota
-used participant observation mainly

Four Major Ideas:

1. Citizens of non-metropolitan communities are concerned and involved in their community, and want to maintain control of helping functions in their community

   -citizen involvement and control is a key issue
   -informal helping a way of life
   -government provision often is suspect
   -concern often for people "like" them but can broaden this to particular children and the elderly

   Helping systems resist outsiders coming in and telling them how the community helping systems function. If it is felt that outsiders want control, they will be resisted.

2. Professionals are often suspects and seen as interfering, trying to take control. They tend to judge people as people and not for degrees or positions held.

3. Communities are quite complex; informal systems are the site of most real decision making. This needs to be recognized and it is imperative to know how to work within these informal structures.

4. Service delivery system has formal and informal components:

   -informal-family, extended family, co-workers, and community informal helping system.
   -formal-formal social service agencies.

Joiner, L. M., Silverstein, L. M., & Clay M. B. (1981). Independent study: Route to academic equity for rural high schools. Educational Leadership, 38, 578-580.

Background:

15 million students attend rural schools and the major threat to the equality of educational opportunity is the erosion of the secondary curriculum

-dwindling number of courses
-fail to meet students' interests
-fail to meet university entrance requirements
-disadvantaged by numbers and remoteness, not by ethnicity or poverty

Self-Directed Study:

Academic equity for Rural Schools program with support of Minnesota Council on Quality Education

-1978 established learning center to study
1. CAI
2. extension courses through correspondence*
3. AV courses
4. VCR courses
*proved to be richest resource

Volunteer Advisors:

Social Volunteer served as personal course advisor-good community liaison

The Manager:

Student less independent than we thought:

-need considerable support to progress through independent studies
-support multiplies with number of courses offered and number of students enrolled
-special teacher manages study center
    -assets with progress individually
    -contracts drawn up
    -weekly progress meetings

Microcomputer:

Apple II has special program for simplifying course management tasks and monitoring student progress.

Costs:

$2.05 per student hour (total)

Student Reactions:

-After two years no discipline problems not due to pre-selection, but

1. Students choose self instruction
2. Students counseled prior, regarding expectations etc.
3. Students find novelty in technology
4. Microcomputer management systems offers feedback
5. Students accept responsibility for self instruction if there is good planning organization and support
6. Student's recommendations are needed
7. Students have opportunity for appealing courses
8. Students have more responsibility
9. Good community support

Advantages:

-work at own speed
-interesting, helpful course
-study center atmosphere
-learning contract
-manager helpful
-learned more independently

Disadvantages:

-no quick help from teachers
-vague questions on lessons and tests
-boredom and disappointed expectations

Completion Rate:

92 Percent

Grades:

Equal to or better to overall GPA

This information provided by program at Littlefork, Big Falls, Minnesota.

Kammer, P. P. (1985). Career and life-style expectations of rural eighth-grade students. The School Counselor, 33, 18-25.

This study investigated curriculum, career, and life-style expectations of 128 eighth-grade students. Designed to help counselors and teachers better understand the career development of female students, the study included explanations of (a) the differences between girls and boys in their curricular expectations, educational plans, career choices, and life-style expectations, and (b) the relationships between girls' and boys' educational and career plans and their life-style expectations. Results indicated no significant difference between girls and boys in the number of planned high school mathematics and science classes and no difference in post-high school plans. Differences were found in selection of occupations and in the work options they would consider if or when they would have families. Implications for counselors in rural schools are provided.

Kelly, E. J., & Van Vactor, J. C. (1983). The relative cost effectiveness of inservice approaches in remote, sparsely populated areas. Exceptional Children, 50 (2), 140-148.

Project Spectre: A federally funded in-service training program for regular classroom teachers in rural Nevada.

-Designed to assess the relative cost effectiveness of four types of inservice applications.

1. Inservice through independent study.
2. Inservice by master teacher employed by school district.
3. Inservice by university instruction on university campus.
4. Inservice by university instruction at the rural site.

2 year results: All approaches are more effective than independent study (although individual instruction is very good).

1. University person at the rural site.
2. Master teacher in school district.
3. University instruction at the university.

Conclusions:

1. Special education in-service training can improve regular class teacher knowledge and performance in rural, remote schools.
2. Gains in knowledge acquired during in-service can be maintained through the employment of practica.
3. Independent study is a far less effective instructional method than approaches that involve some form of direct instruction.
4. Gains in rural, remote-site teacher knowledge are maintained more effectively when instruction is held on-site.
5. On-site instruction provided by university personnel and master teachers employed by schools produces relatively equal gains in knowledge acquisition.

Killacky, J. (1984). Rural learning for learning's sake: It is the matter in Kansas. College Board Review, 133, 10-15.

"Kansas is a state of mind." - William Allen White.

In the 70's, the Kansas Rural Free University Model featured:

- -Adult learning opportunities.
- -What is needed in technological revolution.
- -Encourages learning for learning's sake, local control, flexibility, crossover of boundaries, and an effective means of dealing with the large issues of our times.

Common Characteristics:

- -Emphasis on aims and interests of students.
- -Absence of restrictions on participants.
- -De-emphasis of teacher as authority.
- - Active learning.

Kirmer, K., Lockwood, L., Hickler, W., & Sweeney, P. (1984). Regional rural special education programs. Exceptional Children, 50, 306-311.

A typical rural system faces a number of hurdles to efficient service delivery.

- a system superimposed on separate district each with own stated and unstated priorities, procedures, informal social systems, and norms
- to be accepted must be consensus across districts
- must either pursue specific goals and process across districts or operate independent programs in each. (This is a major problem-forced agreement with ambiguous goals and processes with different agendas creating conflict.)

Problems Inherent in Rural Service Delivery:

- geographical and social isolation of rural areas frequently makes the local school and its leadership more responsive to local norms and demands than to service delivery system goals:
    - tendency of teachers to use special education programs as safety valve
    - geographic size, communication, access problems, support for teachers
    - time, travel, information flow, schedules, sparse staff
    - cultural, educational, recreational isolation
    - problems with recruitment and retention, hire minimally qualified staff who then need support
    - stress, professional isolation
    - role ambiguity, acceptance problems

Central Kansas Cooperative-Shaping Forces:

- enabling legislation for special education in Kansas, 1949
- minimal standards=underserved populations
- 1966-1967/PL 89-10/ to meet needs at regional level
    - area wide program of special services
    - organizational framework, cooperative effort
    - comprehensive program of inservice training
    - information programs
    - diagnostic and remedial centers

Facilitating Operating Procedures:

- Inservice education for regular educators and administrators
- Team building
- Cooperative program coordinators
- Administrative support
- Staff development
- Program articulation

-Interdisciplinary Teams
-Model for Developing Program Goals
-Program Purpose
-Overall learner goals
-Overall staff goal
-Establish content areas
-Develop content areas
-Determine predictor
-Evaluate
-Re-cycle
-Continue

Need to Work Smart:

-districts need to "own" the delivery system
-clarity of mission
-expect certain persistent problems and give them attention
-problems will not be solved in isolation

Kitchen, W. (1987, March). *Education and telecommunications: Partners in progress*. Testimony to the Senate Committee on Labor and Human Services. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 282 551)

America's rural communities are facing increasing challenges to the provision of equitable services and economic stability. Two major rural concerns are: 1) the lack of educational opportunities and resources and 2) potentially inadequate telecommunications infrastructures for economic development. In order to attain economic and educational parity with urban areas, a unique cooperative concept is emerging between rural public school systems and local telecommunications providers. Sharing of telecommunications networks can provide educators with an alternative delivery system for two-way interactive television (ITV) to connect multiple school locations. One such partnership, a fiber optic telecommunications partnership between a rural telephone cooperative and seven school districts, the Mid-State Educational Telecommunications Cooperative (MSET), was recently developed in Minnesota. This system is currently delivering 16 high school classes as well as preschool and parenting classes and community education programs in its first full year of operation. Fiber optics technology, which lends itself well to a two-way ITV system because of its high channel capacity, may also contribute to a community's economic development plans by providing a state-of-the-art telecommunications infrastructure for information-based businesses. Partnerships may also be developed using other technologies including microwave, coaxial cable, and satellite.

Kovel-Jarboe, P. (1987, October). *Empowering the rural adult learner: Problems and strategies.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education. Washington, DC. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 287 015)

This paper summarizes the 16 projects that have been funded by the Minnesota Extension Service to demonstrate innovative and effective uses of technology in adult education. Several of the projects are described in detail. Actual and anticipated impacts are examined, and suggested strategies that others can apply to reach and empower rural adult learners are identified. Formative and summative evaluation data relate strategies to specific problems identified by rural learners. Topics covered by the projects summarized include the following: satellite video teleconference on teen depression and suicide, videotapes on family stress, videotape about selecting and working with a lawyer, distance computer training via telephone, expert system on mastitis prevention, consumer information systems, Northeast Minnesota Telecommunications Network, Interactive Videodisc for pesticide applicator training, computer-accessed bulletin board service, Todd County interactive telecommunications, stored-grain management national satellite video conference, personal computer video production of grain marketing, food and nutrition education, the home landscape, a family education project, and the audiotext system.

Latham, G., & Burnham, J. (1985). Innovative methods for serving rural handicapped children. School Psychology Review, 14 (4), 438-443.

Long distances and few people. Characteristics of rural areas are: High expense, social problems, disincentives to attract qualified workers.

Technical advances can help as well as better communication.

Electronic Cottage:

-Helge (1983) problem areas in implementing technical advances in the implementing technological advances.

1. State of art.
2. Fiscal inadequacies.
3. Staff development needs.
4. Adverse community attitudes.

Volunteers:

Marrs (1984), a valued activity that can be therapeutic for parents.

-Community Independent Living Delivery System:

The system can solve manpower problems. The NRP links volunteers with the needs of the community.

Telecommunications:

-Special Net is an electronic bulletin board system.

-Printed and Mediated Resource Materials:

The Outreach Division of Developmental Center for Handicapped Persons, has developed a number of support systems.

1. A parent-resource library.
2. A parent newsletter called Handi-Helps.
3. Parent training packages in printed and mediated forms.
4. State Extension Services and County Extension Offices to offer help to parents.

Cases Studies, 1, 2, & 3, (442-443).

Lombardi, T. et al. (1985). Rural special programs: Parents opinions and involvement. Rural Special Education Quarterly, 6 (4), 50-51.

Parent action is of great importance.

P.L. 94-142 is for the 3-21 age group.

- -Many states have gone beyond this in their minimum requirements e.g., extending the age group to include birth to 25 year old age group.
- -Key features of the law revolve around the parents right to have imput into their handicapped child's education programs.
- -Parents want to be more active, some say, but they are unaware of how their child is involved in the programs at school or they do not know how to get involved.
- -Cone, Delawyer, & Wolfe, (1985). Three categories of parental involvement are: 1) participation in special education process, 2) contact with teachers, 3) transportation of child to and from school.

Questions for Parents:

- -Are parents willing to attend training programs so that they can become more aware
- -What type of training is desired?
- -Are the parents satisfied with their student's programs and teachers?
- -Are parents differences in opinion of the childs development etc., dependent on the student's age, length of time in special education, or category of exceptionality?

Survey: 2nd semester of 1984-1985.

- -Purpose is to help rural districts to determine number and type of parents who desire parent training. Need to determine type of training and overall perceptions of the special education program.
- -The questionnaire had 12 yes/no items that were on a Likert scale, 4 rural school districts participated.
- -Special education directors chose population for the survey, some sent all of their parents, others sent parents randomly.
- -Questionnaires were either sent home with the students or mailed with a return address.
- -There was a 39% return rate, 2183 sent out, 851 returned.

Results:

- -Overall special education project ratings were good (no significant difference between the number up in project and rating).
- -Teachers were rated excellent most frequently, (they rated higher than projected).
- -Training preferences showed a slight decline in training as the number of years their students had been in special education went up.
- -76% of the parents had students that were 12 or less.
- -63% of the parents had students that were older than 12.

-Priorities were to improve study habits, aid academic growth, improve self concept, monitor student behavior, and others.

-The longer students are in special education the less parents are interested in training. Maybe it wouldn't be this way if they were offered training earlier on. We should periodically assess parents and check for burn-out.

-Parents are more interested in academic training. Deaf/blind parents wanted behavioral modification training.

-Parents are interested in understanding IEPs better.

-Parents should be able to get training in areas they feel are important.

Magrun, W. M., & Tigges, K. N. (1982). A transdisciplinary mobile intervention program for rural areas. The American Journal of Occupational Therapy, 36 (2), 90-94.

A critical priority in allied health today is the efficient delivery of comprehensive services with the family and professionals as equal partners. In rural areas this is particularly important because of sparsely located populations and limited distribution of services. Few facilities in the rural community are able to deliver comprehensive services to a wide geographical area. Location of the services also presents additional burdens on the rural family with a developmentally disabled child. In this paper the stages of program development to meet a specific regional health need are described. The use and characteristics of a mobile program of early intervention serving developmentally disabled infants and preschoolers in rural areas of southwestern New York State are discussed. The practical application of this approach is considered.

Marrs, L. W. (1984). A bandwagon without music: Preparing rural special educators. Exceptional Children, 50, 334-342.

Three types of teachers are prepared for rural special education:

1. People that grow up in rural areas and are comfortable with the culture. Often these people are eager to remain in a rural setting.

2. Place-bound people that want or need to live in a rural area and gets forced into special education. Often times such people are less qualified, with undergraduate degrees or non-certification in special education.

3. People that take a position in rural special education because "there is nothing else available." These teachers often leave when they get the chance. There is a large turnover rate (30-50%), for these teachers due to culture shock.

U.S. (SEP) Briefing Paper (Sontag & Button, 1980).
"Although the SEP has invested time and money to address shortages of other Special Education personnel, rural shortages are acute because they have not prepared special ed. personnel that are able to adjust to the demands of remote, isolated, or culturally distinct rural areas."

Numbers of universities and colleges jumped on the bandwagon to train rural special educators. Most of the results are less than effective. Graduates are probably prepared more for the urban role.

In Kentucky, SEA paid educational monies of practicum teachers to get certification in their particular areas of need. Often an issue of temporary certification.

The National Consortium of University Preparation of Rural Special Educators in 1982 represented 47 universities of different levels of participation. Presently there are approximately 70 members.

The NRP Field Test Participants involved 37 universities and colleges. The purpose was to modify curriculum, develop modules. The final products are available upon request.

Most teachers say that any rural training they got was on the job.

A 1983 study showed that there is a need for specific rural preservice topics such as, experimental training, "focus on ruralness," how to adapt and adjust, professional and social growth limits.

Problems for Teacher Training Institutions:

-Limited guarantee and quality of materials.
-Limited role models in rural practicum sites.
-Number of people and transportation to practicum sites.

- Housing problems and climatic problems.
- Supervision differences.
- Not much emphasis on low incidence.
- Heavy faculty loads.
- How qualified are continuing education instructors?

NRP Needs:

- Severe and low-incidence.
- Rural independent living skills.
- Technology: Over the past 17 years early childhood Special Education Administration secondary proposed related services for the rehabilitation of generic Special Education areas of ED, LD, EMR, and Speech teachers.

Modules Availability:

- 1-10 (have in other information).
- Based on competencies designed for infusion in ongoing Special Education programs. They are not intended to replace programs or add extra work.

Competencies:

- Demonstrate understanding of context of rural schools and environments.
- Demonstrate understanding of differences in servicing handicapped children in rural and urban areas.
- Demonstrate knowledge of the state of the art of rural education.
- Demonstrate effective service delivery models for rural special education
- Demonstrate awareness of alternate resources.
- Demonstrate skills in working with paraprofessionals of rural instructors.
- Developing skills in working with cities and agencies to facilitate cooperation.
- Demonstrate an understanding of personal development skills, professional growth, and building local support.
- Demonstrate skills in working with peer professionals.

National Consortium of University Preparation of Rural Special Educators:

Curriculum Elements:

- Differences in rural and urban school communication.
- The inequities of ruralness, heterogeneity of rural subcultures.
- Historical overview of rural education, advantages and disadvantages of rural education.
- Community services, effects of federal mandates, current controversies.
- etc, pg. 339-340.

Rural Resources: There is a positive sense of community, strong accountability networks, informal political and communication systems, people know each other, special attitudes and values, family and friend networks, etc.

Personnel specifically trained to work with rural handicapped programs will have greater personal as well as professional success.

Curricula Should:

- -Provide training of comprehensive special education instruction with appropriate rural skills.
- -Trained to work with various categories including low-incidence.
- -A quality curriculum content that is data based.
- -Training to use existing resources, (cost analysis).
- -Change models must be consistent with rural cultural values.
- -Curricula designed to work with community value systems and be adaptable.
- -Prepare for a variety of leadership, service, and support.
- -Use flexible use of instruction strategies.
- -Use follow-up, hands on, practicum, internships, and job placement stategies.
- -Incorporate interdisciplinary training.
- -Technological innovations should be used when feasible.
- -Further research in these areas is encouraged.

Marrs, L. W. (1983). Generic problems or solutions in rural special education. Bellingham, WA: Western Washington University.

-There are generalizable solutions to problems identified in rural special education.

-There is a lot of diversity in rural settings.

-Unfortunately, educators for rural and urban settings are being trained in basically the same way.

Dimensions of Solutions:

(<--------> School and Community Infrastructure <----->)
( )
(<----> Leadership Skills <-------> Resources <----->)

-All must be taken into consideration when teachers are solving special problems, but actions are more personalized and potentially volatile in a rural working situation, for example when a special education leader has a problem they can not pass the buck to subordinate pointmen.

A primary requisite for leadership in rural schools is understanding that there are a few givens that are manageable:

-The Marrs Laws of Non Absolutes: 1) Everything in life is on a continuum. 2) There is no such thing as a pure model.

-There is a need for human, conceptual, and technical skills to help them do and keep their jobs. They also need to provide appropriate services.

Leadership Skills:

Interpersonal, negotiative, creativeness, logical abilities, self confidence, assertiveness, pro-active planning, organizational development, communication, and self-renewing abilities.

Community and School Infrastructure:

Formal organizational structure, informal organizational structure, communication networks, "raison d'etre", service, social, professional agencies, who are the movers and shakers?

Resources:

External funding, collaboration, community involvement, flexibility, recruitment, and retention strategies, technology.

Marrs, L. W. (1984). Should a special educator entertain volunteers? Interdependence in rural America. Exceptional Children, 50, 361-366.

Rural americans help solve each others problems and are aware of community needs, resources and are willing to share what they have. One-third of the nations population lives in rural areas.

Problems in Rural Service Delivery:

-Since 94-142, there has been a 92% increase in rural students identified with handicaps but services are still sporadic (i.e., there may be no elementary no secondary, no pre-school services available).

-Budget cuts (federal) led to cut backs in special education services and in other district social services.

National Rural Independent Living Network-Murray State

-creates community independent living service delivery systems staffed with citizen volunteers and professionals
-the plan is for 500 sites by early I986
-this is a network of rural communities establishing communication and sharing systems (i.e., volunteers, existing service and social clubs, libraries, churches stores, volunteer fire departments, etc.) all working together to help individuals with disabilities to lead relatively independent lives

Lay Citizenry Resource Networks Professional Resource Networks

Public Schools

-the need is expressed by the individual with a handicap
-the response is with resources and services

The Process p. 362
The Model p. 363
A List of possible groups (4H to Golden Age Clubs)

Volunteerism:

There is a changing role for volunteers, used to just be people helping neighbors---now, professionals do many of the tasks that were originally done by volunteers.

Why Use Volunteers:

They are already individuals who are active in the community, there are already links established between and within organizations so there is a possibility of providing more services to more people.

Volunteers Need:

Good recruitment process, good training and matching with others. The time element needs to be protected. There needs to be reliability and confidentiality.

-In many rural areas a system of volunteerism is already in place and highly respected, however, individuals don't call themselves volunteers, only NEIGHBORS

People volunteer:

-recognition
-new opportunities
-help the less fortunate
-use their skills
-meet new people
-friendship

To establish a network need to know:

-community structure
-community contacts
-how to match individuals with disabilities, their families and volunteers.

Problems:

-keeping volunteers busy
-maintaining organizational momentum
-good PR
-threatened professionals

Martinez, M. (1986). The satellite clinic: Providing access to intervention in rural Texas. Zero to Three, June, 15-16.

Introduction:

Many rural families in the Texas panhandle cannot adopt a "wellness" approach to health care because there is a lack of follow-up services that are available.

The lack of access may be for many reasons:
- financial
- transportation
- psychological

A satellite clinic program is one way to provide access to follow-up care to at-risk infants whose families live in rural areas. The infants may face physical or environmental risks to healthy development or combination of risk factors. About 70 such infants have been born in the target area since January 1, 1985.

The Texas Tech University Health Sciences Center in Amarillo, Texas has been awarded a national services grant by the March of Dimes Foundation to establish a satellite program.

The presence of satellite services gives the family genuine access to a professional who is beginning to know them, who knows and can communicate with available services, and who can devote the time to follow-up .

Massey, S., & Crosby, J. (1983). Special problems, special opportunities: Preparing teachers for rural schools. Phi Delta Kappan, 65, 265-269.

Problems: There is a lack of support services, facilities, and materials for teachers. There are also an abundance of multi-grade teaching situations.

Benefits: Often there are many volunteers, helping parents, and neighbors.

Need: There is a need for schools to prepare teachers for special education problems in rural schools.

-Education programs give teachers only a vague awareness of
  1. Unique problems with this setting.
  2. Unique potential for progress.

-No special training given to help deal with the characteristics of rural schools and community.

-A 1980 survey by Dunne & Carlsen showed that 64% for the resident teachers had no appropriate training to teach in small schools. 47% of the secondary teachers were teaching in 2 or more disciplines. 41% felt that schools were doing a poor job of staff development. 36% felt that most teachers felt professionally isolated.

-Nelson (1983), in Teacher Education for Rural Schooling: A Status Report, stated that only 3 of 40 preparation programs offered any courses that specially deal with teaching in rural education.

-Horn, in Insuring Excellence in Rural Education, states that teachers leave small rural schools because of their lack of preparation for the "excessive isolation."

-Muse, (Ibid.), states that teachers are not prepared for the lack of inservice training, degree programs, and the small number of social activities.

-Dunne & Carlsen (1980), showed that a significant number of rural teachers were new to schools and new to teaching in general. Few of them have master's degrees, staff development is a problem. This is a major responsibility for good undergraduate programs.

-National Center for Educational Statistics (1980) indicates that: 2/3rds of all school districts, 1/2 of all preschools, and 1/3rd of all teachers are in rural settings and the rural population is going up.

Why don't the universities and colleges deal with the problem?

1. Rural community politics are invisible and impotent.
2. There is an orientation towards subject matter not special constituencies.
3. Cultural characteristics and institutional priorities.
4. A self-declared worldiness and sophistication of faculty often expresses a disdain for rigid, conservative rural communities.
5. There is a great push for specialization when rural schools need people who are generalists.

Training Generalists: Many demands are placed on teachers which requires broad professional responsibilities.

-Training programs should increase the number of content areas in which prospective teachers are prepared to teach.
-Training programs should prepare teachers to work with a broad range of age groups.
-Training programs should help prospective teachers learn to integrate the curriculum.

School-Community Relations: There is an extremely close relationship between the community and the school. Almost all the people have children or relatives in school, many are employed there. A feeling of ownership is strong and many feel it is a community center. All of these feelings need to be identified with in a positive way by the teacher.

-Training programs should help provide teachers with an understanding of the roles of the community in American schooling.
-Training programs should enable prospective teachers to actually experience the close relationship that exists between a rural community and its schools.
-BYU Rural Training Centers:

1. Duo-Special Project (1967), University of Arizona: Seminars compare rural and urban teacher exchanges.
2. New School for Behavioral Studies at the University of North Dakota in Nachtigal, P, M, (Ed). Rural Education: In search of a better way. Boulder, CO. Westview Press, 1982. PP.27-46 (Faith Dunne.)

Developing Self Sufficiency: Social and professional isolation.

-Training programs should teach prospective teachers how to gain effective access to information and other resources.
-Training programs should build prospective teachers sense of professionalism.
-Training programs should reinforce the self-confidence of prospective teachers.

There is a need to get more research and writing in this area disseminated.

Matthes, W. A., & Carlson, R. V. (1987). Why do teachers choose rural schools? The Education Digest, February, 26-29.

Recruitment and retention of quality teachers is a major problem facing schools in communities with a population of less than 2,500 persons:

-"fishbowl effect" is common in small communities
-67% of all schools, serving 33% of all children are in this situation

The Teacher Recruitment and Preparation Questionnaire (TPRQ) was used to ask two questions:

1. What are the incentives that attract first-year teachers to rural situations as opposed to suburban or urban schools?
2. Are the reasons for considering a position in another school district different for rural, suburban, and urban teachers different?

Reasons for accepting present positions:

-rural teachers felt that pace of living, cost of living, and size of school to be important
-suburban teachers considered social/cultural opportunities, community emphasis on student achievement, community involvement opportunities, continuing education, professional autonomy, reputation of school district, starting salary, and access to tenure as important.
-urban teachers rated social/cultural opportunities, professional autonomy, starting salary, and rewards to be important

Rural teachers were concerned with settling in the community, suburban, and urban teachers wanted professional growth with a future to it with an interest in continuing education.

Reasons for considering a position, (with another school district as rated for all teachers; rural, suburban, and urban):

-rural, starting salary, support from parents/community, fringe benefits, pleasant school environment, access to resources
-suburban, starting salary, fringe benefits, community committment to quality, good salary schedule, support from administration
-urban, starting salary, fringe benefits, support from administration, pleasant school environment, good salary schedule

If rural school employers want to be competitive they must have starting salary, fringe benefits and support for teachers plus a pleasant teaching situation.

McDonald, D., & Gibson, K. (1982). The rural school district and the microcomputer. NASSP Bulletin, September, 75-77.

Microcomputers are making computer technology available to rural school districts.

- They have increased the effectiveness in the administration processes.
- They have enhanced instruction techniques.

For certain situations however, there is:

- No comprehensive plan for acquisition of computers.
- No instruction for teachers.
- No provision for maintenance.
- No attempt to develop a scope and sequence for K-12 computer education.

West Franklin's efforts to solve problems:

- Centralize equipment and software for inventory and repair.
- Check-out procedures that are established such as, the certification of staff members, and one week plus one week extension.
- Additional equipment purchased.
- Software duplicated.
- New vendors and better service with more money.
- Equipment problems will develop because of use by people who are not trained to use it, so equipment can only be checked out by those who demonstrate competence.
- Encourage equipment use by those who will need it most, i.e., an inservice.
- A good inservice should include:
  - Familiarize teachers with care and use of equipment.
  - Elements of anxiety and stress should be addressed
  - Have hand-out material.
  - Evaluation of sessions and a follow-up should be done.

Miller, L. E., & Dlamini, B. M. (1987, April). The Swaziland Agriculture Teacher Education Program as perceived by professionals in agricultural education. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association for International Agricultural Education. Chevy Chase, MD. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 285 718)

Descriptive correlational research employing a mailed questionnaire was used to study perceptions of agricultural education professionals regarding Swaziland's preservice teacher education program in agriculture. Areas examined were student selection, student teaching, inservice education, teacher educators, coordination and linkage with other agencies, content, and competencies needed by agriculture teachers. A total of 116 useable questionnaires was returned from the target population consisting of all 128 professionals in agricultural education in Swaziland. The majority of respondents were teachers in secondary schools, males, relatively young, working in rural areas, held the associate degree, had low levels of experience in their work, received their training in Swaziland, and had not studied agriculture while in high school. Respondents perceived the agriculture teacher education program to be credible in terms of admission standards, qualification of faculty, and quality of technical and professional courses taught, but saw weaknesses in student teaching, conduct of inservice courses for agriculture teachers, coordination and linkage with other agencies, general courses taught, and skill training. Level of education slightly influenced the way professionals in agricultural education viewed the agriculture teacher education program; whereas, gender, work experience, age, type of profession, place of training, and place of work had no major influence.

Mitchell, G. E. (1984). A profile of two rural principals. Principal, 64, 6-8.

Myths exist about rural education that are remembered either romantically or with disdain. These memories are not current with the status quo.

Nachtigal, P. M. Rural education: In search of a better way.

- -Rural communities are not miniature versions of the cities. They have different characteristics. The function goes beyond that of educating children. A rural school is not only a piece of the social structure, it is often the hub that holds the community together.
- -Rural communities and school continue to exist with their unique qualities in spite of counterproductive preoccupation with urbanization and attempts to overlay rural America with urban problems and structures.

In 1980, Vermont was the most rural state. They managed to keep government at a personal and manageable level for school control.

School is a social center. Cities feel free to comment on almost every aspect of school operation. Teachers tend to have their own constituencies in town.
The issues involved are:

- -Curriculum planning that includes sequences, assessments, etc.
- -Staff development and power of local community.
- -Microcomputers
- -Cooperation needed by SDDE, (what is unique in rural community?).

The rural child never experiences a lot of things, but has a lot of close ties.

Murphy, W. F., Jr. (1987). Telelearning for extension agents: The Virginia Experience. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education. Washington, DC. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 287 014)

The creation of the Virginia Tech Teleport Facility and the installation of a nine-meter (diameter) C-Band satellite uplink antenna provided the initial impetus for the Virginia Cooperative Extension Service (VCES) to explore the use of satellite technology for information and program delivery. The $600,000 uplink became operational in September 1986; the first campus broadcast was an extension staff development teleconference, directed towards field staff, covering the programming process model to be used in developing the next 4-year plan of work. The uplink site presently provides two broadcast-quality video signal channels for transmitting television signals from Blacksburg. When fully developed, the teleport will include antenna support structures, facilities for housing electronic equipment, and accommodations for 12 to 15 satellite dishes. Planned for the fall of 1987 are a KU-Band satellite transmission/receiving station, a 20-meter Simulsat C-Band receiving station, and a C-Band transmit/receive earth station for transmission of radio programming. In addition, 41 downlink sites will be located in local extension offices, 4-H continuing education centers, district offices, and research stations. During the spring and summer of 1987, 42 faculty members from Virginia Tech and Virginia State participated in training sessions on teleconferencing. From April through October 1987, VCES produced 16 teleconferences, totaling 25 half-hours of broadcasting. Eleven hours of the total broadcast time were devoted to extension agents as the primary audience. Plans are being made for additional educational programming for extension agents and volunteers.

Muse, I. D. (1984). Excellence in rural education: "A nation at risk" revisited. Rural Education Mini Review, 2-18. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 261 819)

According to a report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education, America is "a nation at risk". Its educational system is allowing a significant number of students to pass through its schools, receive high school diplomas, and enter institutions of higher learning without acquiring the base of knowledge and information, or the required skills necessary to function in either a work or an environment of higher learning. The Commission challenges the educational system to implement corrective actions.

While rural educators share the desire to provide excellence in education, the Commission and the United States Department of Education must recognize the unique characteristics of rural schools and provide appropriately different strategies to enable rural schools to meet the new goals.

Rural educators urge national policy makers to:

-recognize diverse rural subcultures,
-support innovative teacher training programs,
-develop career ladder and merit pay systems designed to retain quality rural personnel,
-support more comprehensive inservice training programs,
-support intermediate educational units, and
-provide adequate rural special education services support.

Problems for rural schools include:

-insufficient funding,
-inadequate specialists to provide higher level basics, foreign languages, and advanced placement classes recommended as graduation requirements by the Commission.

To strengthen programs, rural schools should consider:

-senior student schedules
-non-academic programs
-classroom time-on-task
-traveling teachers
-community participation

To support rural school reform, policymakers should address recruitment, support, and retention of rural teachers by providing flexible certification requirements, career ladder and merit pay programs, and adequate university teacher training programs.

Muse, I. D. (1980, November). The role of higher education in rural education. Paper presented at the 2nd Annual Kansas State University Rural and Small School Conference. Manhattan, KS. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 201 464)

All too frequently, teacher training institutions try to handle a myriad of problems with single solutions.

Teacher training programs are the same for each student regardless of college major or teaching interest.

Inservice training is often only considered a graduate school training program and maintains a status-quo regardless of differing school needs for example, set courses, residency seminars, and any place where courses are offered.

A single curriculum is not best. Is the education appropriate as a means of preparing educators for the community, students, and school situations?

Specialized training for inner-city schools is provided but, specialized training for rural teachers is almost nonexistant. Many college deans are not even aware that differences exist.

It is necessary that those involved in higher education understand the unique weakness inherent in many rural schools (e.g., poverty, substandard housing, deficient medical services, quality education)

- -a child born in rural areas has a 1/4 chance of belonging to a family whose income is at a substandard level
- -a child will have fewer opportunities to study in a particular subject area and fewer chances to become prepared for post high school experiences

Most isolated rural youth are not motivated to continue their education, they feel less competent to compete with urban counterparts.

Rural teachers have:

- -lower salaries
- -inadequate physical facilities
- -isolation
- -teachers are often from urban areas, rural jobs are sound and temporary choices
- -the professional teacher wants to continue professional growth which often means added expense for moving each summer to a college campus
- -professors etc., deal most with urban students and have little exposure to rural experience and needs

Special needs of rural school districts:

Rural factors	Urban factors
1) Few student teachers can get placed in small schools that are more than 40 miles from campus	1) Teacher training programs are in urban areas, most teachers take jobs where they student taught
2) Rural teaching is more complicated, 5-6 different populations plus extra-curricular duties	2) 2-4 preparations, extra curricular duties less frequent, and often pay is better
3) There are problems with adequate housing	3) Varied selection, higher salaries and relative ease in finding employment for spouse
4) Inservice experience is lacking, travel is required, summer moves are frequent	4) Inservice is available in district, or local center, higher percentage of teachers do masters or Ph.D. work
5) Geographic isolation, less social opportunities, and less health services means higher turnover rates	5) Good cultural and social opportunities plus shopping, and medical services
6) Teachers may teach unfamiliar subjects at several different grade levels	6) Teachers often only need to teach within major
7) Specialized programs and classes are difficult to maintian	7) More courses and programs are offered

Teachers going into rural areas must be prepared:

- -to live happily away from cultural opportunities
- -to live happily and get satisfaction from close relationships with people with whom they work with
- -need reinforcement for their ability and worth
- -need frequent inservice
- -teacher training instruction must be aware and involved

Recommendations:

Rural Education Speciality - A specialist in rural education would be able to do a variety of tasks, gain the respect of others, provide leadership, inservice training, curriculum development, etc. Universities need to promote and advertise this type of role.

School - College Relationships - Often are partly on partly off campus training, have a choice of training centers, enlist the aid of rural staff, can assume some responsibility for supervision of student teachers.

Preservice and Inservice Education - Interrelated and interacting dynamics. The goal of college should be involvement of the training process from preparation throughout the career of the educator. Continuous, relevant inservice should be brought to schools as much as possible. University staff must become more familiar and proficient at rural issues.

Curriculum Development - The university can help in the development of "ruralized" materials and methods. A well integrated curriculum (that portrays ruralism as a desirable aspect of American life) will help students develop a proud sense of belonging and of equal importance to rural students.

Colleges can help by:

-supporting state rural education associations
-have a director of rural education
-encourage frequent meetings among schools, districts, etc
-offer masters and doctoral programs to select groups of rural teachers placing an emphasis on rural education
-support teacher exchanges
-encourage workshops and conferences for rural educators only
-provide support to students who want to student teach in a rural community
-provide a list of prospective rural teachers to superintendents in small communities and help with recruitment of them

National Association for Retarded Citizens. (1980). Effective approaches to implementing Public Law 94-142 in rural areas. Arlington, TX. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 201 123)

The summary of discussion from a 1980 Baltimore (MD) conference on implementing PL 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, in rural areas focused on the problems facing special education in rural, remote, and isolated areas and suggested action for change. Work group recommendations are discussed for three main topics (sample subtopics in parentheses): cost effective service delivery approaches (staff development and effective use of personnel, parental and community involvement, community participation, cost effective communications, cost effective energy and transportation strategies, and cost effective child find strategies); personnel retention and recruitment (incentive strategies, professional and community support, inservice training and staff development, and teacher retraining and educational options); and ways to capitalize on positive rural attributes and attitudes (working with parents and children in the rural community and changing public opinion).

Newby, J. (1981). Syllabus design: Fitting an urban model to a rural need. Rural Education: In Pursuit of Excellence, 177-181.

Are rural children environmentally underpriviledged and hence educationally underdeveloped?

In rural schools, is the content tailored to students needs or does it simply replicate urban content?

Can teachers accept the fact that this often urban oriented content is what is really best for learning and preparation for the future?

If schooling is to reflect the lifestyle of the local community then it may be that the teacher's role is to relate his programs to the needs and aspirations of that community.

The curriculum needs to be adapted, not just converted or "ruralized".

What is required are sensitive, well organized, well supported and equipped teachers with ample hardware and software resources.

Newton, E. E. (1987). *Change in small rural schools*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association. Washington, DC. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 282 679)

The dynamics of change processes in a rural school jurisdiction over a 5-year period were examined in relation to four specific goals: (1) to document changes since a planning study was done in 1982; (2) to determine if school program changes that had been adopted had reached the classroom according to teacher perceptions; (3) to report how the school system (Parkland School System, Saskatchewan) is organized to provide support for change and how that support is perceived by teachers and principals; and (4) to examine community-school interactions particularly through elected boards. A case study approach was used, with qualitative and quantitative information collected and analyzed throughout the period of the study and findings grouped under the headings of school-community setting, events and changes since 1981, and implementation and teachers' perceptions of support. The study identified positive environmental and leadership factors which led to adoption and early implementation of innovations in relation to computers, special education, and itinerant teachers. The changes are now being threatened by lack of integrated, sustained, pressure and support and by the likelihood that local political factors will prevent priority being given to a system perspective.

Nolan F. (1985). Vistas unlimited : A success story for rural principals.
Principal, 64, 34-36.

Introduction:

Vistas Unlimited is a series of Saturday enrichment activities for children, sponsored by Renville County elementary school principals. It began in 1981 with a spelling bee contest in which five schools participated.

A few months later the Renville County principals met to plan a series of Saturday enrichment events for elementary children in the county.

The guidelines were that some events would be competitive and others would not. And the cost would be apportioned among the schools, which would take turns in hosting various events.

Purpose:

To provide recognition and educational experiences for the academically and artistically talented students.

Planning a Vista:

1. Plan joint activities to meet student needs that individual schools cannot provide
2. Define the geographic area involved and the principals and schools that want to participate
3. Select events that provide a variety of activites
4. Spread the events throughout the geographic area and school year, with different principal serving as hosts
5. Hold monthly meetings to encourage communications and provide feedback on plans for upcoming events and on events already held
6. Keep registration costs low and seek underwriting wherever possible, preferable from town or district funds
7. Get good publicity before and during each event
8. Keep your guidelines as flexible as you can, permitting individual principals to make their own decisions

Nytes, G. L., & Musegades, P. (1985). Sharing technology: Keeping small rural schools alive. NASSP Bulletin, 69, 33-35.

-Telecommunications and educational networking have allowed small schools access to many new information sources.

-For a relatively small investment, schools can access extensive sources of information.

-Having the skills to get information is more important than knowing the information.

-ETV's, satellite disks, 2-way interactive TV and video, technologies, are some of the major forms to be used.

Technology in the Classroom:

-We cannot just put the equipment into the classroom, there needs to be plans made to get it used by the people who need it.
-Teachers need to weave the thread of technology through their curriculum so that students get a working knowledge of the uses of it.
-Money must be spent on how to use this technology.

Developing an Integration Model:

-Establish a technology advisory committee that represents the people from each district and community.
-Establish a group of "Key Demonstration and Resource People," (use the talents of available people)
-Train the teachers. Use the KDRP team.
-Provide the mechanical hardware and software, software library (no less than 30 of the best software packages in each subject and level, enough copies for a complete lab, and a check-out system.). Cooperation between all districts is essential.
-Evaluate and improve upon the integration process to `create a method of evaluation, the results of which will improve the process and its outcomes.

Phan-Thay, N. (1985). Employment and training schemes for rural youth: Learning from experience. International Labor Review, 124, 435-436.

The explosion of the youth population - coupled with high rates of unemployment and underemployment, particularly in rural areas, the migration of young people from the countryside to the towns and shortcomings in the formal systems of education - presents the developing countries with a formidable challenge. Over the past two decades the governments of a number of newly independent countries in Africa and Asia have experimented with various types of youth mobilization or employment and training schemes in an attempt to tackle the problem of youth unemployment in the rural areas. This article assesses some of these schemes, looking particularly at the factors that seem to account for their success or failure, with a view to establishing certain criteria that productive employment programs of this sort should observe.

Reece, J. L. et al. (1987). Perceptions of rural school personnel in North Central Association member and non-member schools located in nine states regarding accreditation by the Commission of Schools. North Central Association of Colleges and Schools. Submitted to Committee on Research, Commission on Schools, North Central Association of Colleges and Schools. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 287 638)

This study examines the perceptions of 113 school board members, 119 principals, and 2,028 teachers from 9 states (Arizona, Colorado, Kansas, Nebraska, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Dakota, and Wyoming) regarding the preparation of teachers and the availability of professional services as well as education resources. The study also considers perceptions of these groups about the effect of accreditation by the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools on various components of the school. A demographic survey is included to present a more complete picture of the rural population surveyed. Results suggest professional growth and licensure standards are not a problem since many personnel pursue graduate work; personnel from both accredited and non-accredited schools view accreditation as a process for enhancing program quality; both teachers and principals do not support special new rural teacher preparation programs; and both elementary and secondary teachers frequently teach two or more grade levels or disciplines. The study recommends the recent Outcomes Accreditation process as most appropriate for rural schools, review of minimum standards for teacher subject-matter preparation to accommodate diverse rural secondary assignments, wider dissemination of information about exemplary programs in rural schools, and increased efforts to encourage rural school accreditation.

Riniker, T. D. (1984). The story of Noah: A rural family with a multiply handicapped child. Exceptional Parent, 14 (5), 18-22.

A parent's story of a child with multiple handicaps in a rural area.

Finding programs is the major challenge for children with problems involving:

- -severe athetoid spastic
- -quadriplegic
- -severely profoundly deaf
- -normal or near normal intelligence

These children need:

- -educational sites
- -IEPs
- -foster homes

Little cooperation exists between or from different agencies: SRS, MH, and DD encounter many rules that seem to go against helping the child who stays at home to get services.

The use of a lawyer to threaten non-compliance is acceptable. The LEA will have to pay all expenses.

Rosenfeld, S. (1983). Something old, something new: The wedding of rural education and rural development. Phi Delta Kappan, 65, 270-273.

If rural communities are to survive current changes in the economy, they will have to rethink educational policies, and practices once again. Two programs are examined as areas which rural communities can offer satisfactory and successful educational opportunities for rural youth: vocational agriculture and school based enterprises. This article explains vocational agriculture as the most successful and most underrated educational venture in U.S. history. School based enterprise is a new program built on experiential aspects of vocational education but moving a step closer to genuine development of the rural economy. Examples of successful programs are given as well as implications of developing experiential education.

Rottier, J. (1981). Teacher burnout-small and rural school style. *Education, 104* (1), 72-79.

"Burnout" is of great concern within the helping professions.

Spanniolic & Caputo (1980): Burnout often results by "wearing yourself out doing what you have to do", and from having an inability to cope with the stress of work and personal life:

- teachers were singled-out specifically as having many different types of stress to deal with (environmental, interpersonal, and intrapersonal) Swick and Hanley (1980)

Environmental:

- poor resources, inadequate teacher facilities, large numbers of classroom interruptions, poor school organization, excessive paperwork, decreased job mobility

Interpersonal:

- family, spouse, co-workers, administrators, and community members, in general cause stress due to maintaining a positive rapport with many different publics

Intrapersonal:

- feelings from within produce these stress factors i.e., perfectionism, self-concept, different expectations, etc.
- most previous research is done in urban schools or large schools
- most articles on coping skills etc., seem aimed at larger schools

For rural teachers factors could be:

- multiple course preparations
- never being anonymous in the community
- not experiencing stimulation of new teachers and administrators
- working with unmotivated students whose vocational future is already decided

Study: To determine if there were some indications of teacher burnout in rural teachers and if there were any definite patterns relative to their age and sex.

Questionnaire: Based on a review of the literature, Sparks (1979), Cook (1979), Miller & Weltse (1979), Helge & Marrs (1981).

Sample: 11 West-Central Minnesota districts, elementary and secondary. 348 teachers returned them.

Questions in six clusters, correspond to areas most often mentioned, plus causes and/or symptoms of burnout:

- -teacher relationship with students
- -teacher satisfaction with teaching
- -teacher reaction to administrators
- -teacher reaction to school districts
- -teacher satisfaction with school expectations
- -teacher health patterns

Conclusions:

- -in small rural districts a significant number of teachers manifest symptoms of personal dissatisfaction with teaching
- -men more than women expressed unhappiness about many of the situations in their school

Men typically:

- -achieve less satisfaction than women
- -are more unhappy with administration
- -have less positive feelings
- -feel less positive about some of the expectations of teaching in small rural schools
- -exhibit more physical problems
- -men in the 41-50 age group are the most unhappy

Differences in results with this and other studies:

- -this study showed the greatest unhappiness for the 41-50 age group. Sweeney found it at ages 25-34, New York found it at the 31-40 age groups
- -this study found significant differences between men and women by age in six of 35 items, neither of the other studies did
- -this study showed 33% of the participants with stress related physical problems, Sweeney found 51%, New York found 41%, and Walsh found 56%
- -this study found 41% of the teachers considering a career change

Specifications:

- -many teachers in this study lived and taught in the same community for more than 20 years. Many feel stuck and may have made a naive "act of faith" to the school district, but school districts are now terminating them.
- -most of the male respondents were secondary teachers
- -the nature of the profession has changed, there is less involvement with totality of school because of negotiations which worsened relations with administrators
- -education systems may be at fault, schools have not employed consistent employment practices

Systems need to:

- -ascertain environmental conditions that influence the organizations and the individual
- -plan and design intervention strategies for stress conditions
- -implement change strategies to minimize or eliminate stress conditions
- -evaluate these strategies and mental health of individual

Further research:

- -replication and verification of conclusions is needed
- -a look at different grade levels and its relevance to the problem
- -we need to consider the number of years spent in one role or location and its effect on burnout

Rush, G. S. (1981). Corrective measures in the teacher shortage: Consequences and conclusions. Education, 104 (1), 34-37.

Problem: Teacher shortages.

-in some specific geographical areas, shortages will likely continue since enrollment in teacher education is affected. In 1970, 317,254 teachers were education graduates and in 1980, 159,485 teachers were education graduates. Low salaries and difficult working conditions are perpetual problems.

Solutions in consideration:

-higher pay for teachers in shortage areas
-in-service programs to retain teachers
-industry employees as part-time teachers
-loan repayment waived if teaching in areas of shortage
-added pay is the most popular incentive

Positives:

-individuals from other occupations will get to teach
-better teachers will stay in the profession
-teachers in surplus areas will move to shortage areas
-former teachers will return to teaching
-competition for higher paying jobs will create better conditions for all teachers
-brain-drain from education can be avoided
-pre-service education majors will look to shortage areas
-"burn-out" prevented by new challenges

Arguments:

-some of the shortage areas are more demanding and deserve higher pay
-precedent for incentives in some places for special education and guidance
-laws of supply and demand are followed when extra pay is offered creating a satisfactory balance over time

Negatives:

-solutions are only temporary
-the best prospects will not enter the field, only those who want more money
-contract negotiations are painful and complicated
-dissention on part of lower paid teachers
-transfer of teachers to shortage areas will cause new shortages
-extra incentives will only redistribute an already inadequate supply of good teachers
-areas might create shortages so they can get more money
-business and industry will raise salaries too
-what happens to higher paid areas when there is no longer a shortage?

Comparable worth of teachers:

- -can we determine one teacher's value over another?
- -is one area really more important to student learning?
- -conflict of interest can be present with various parties
- -we must be able to determine capabilities of individual teachers within each subject area, merit pay should be based on solid evaluation systems, however, most evaluation systems have failed

Temporary provisions: This is a Band-Aid approach to the problems. We need to:

- -re-work the entire system
- -begin at a pre-service and guide students into areas of greatest need based on research into supply and demand
- -effective inservice in order to help teachers meet changing needs of profession
- -we must address the issue of comparable worth with teachers involved in determination
- -policy and law makers need to be involved in enacting policy and legislation based on data

Schmidt, R. E., Stewart, J. P., & McLaughlin, T. F. (1987). Effects of two classroom seating arrangements on classroom participation and academic responding with native American junior high school students. Techniques: A Journal for Remedial Education and Counseling, 3, 172-180.

The objective of the present study was to determine the effects of free vs. integrated seating arrangements with junior high Native American students. Data was collected for academic responding, frequency of participating, attendance, and assignment completion. Data from a pre/post sociogram and post questionnaire as to the two seating arrangements also was collected. The effects of seating arrangements on academic and classroom responding was evaluated in an ABAB design. During the first and third phase, students were allowed to seat themselves freely in the classroom. During the second and fourth conditions, students were assigned by the social studies teacher, who utilized an integrated pattern. Overall results indicated that seating arrangement had no effect on academic responding. Increases in classroom participation were found for 4 of the 5 students. Class member acceptance of the subjects as friends increased, while close friendships with the subjects remained stable. Four of 5 subjects preferred integrated seating arrangements. Factors related to the study were discussed.

Sher, J. P. (1983). Bringing home the bacon: The politics of rural school reform. Phi Delta Kappan, 65, 279-283.

This article establishes political realities as obstacles to meaningful school reform in rural areas. The author submits that meaningful school reform is more a political matter than a technical one. The article explains that despite massive governmental spending and repeated calls for school reform, those children "unlucky" enough to have been born poor, working class, nonwhite, handicapped, rural, or female continue to be denied the best of what American public school could and should provide. The West Virginia case Pauley v. Bailey is detailed to emphasize difficulties in changing rural schools. The author suggests three implications: 1) The process by which educational reforms are planned and implemented will largely determine their primary beneficiaries; 2) creating a political constituency around the needs of rural children is both critically important and feasible; and 3) developing a more explicitly political perspective on school reform among rural educators is a necessary (if risky) undertaking.

Sher, J. P. (1983). Education's ugly duckling: Rural schools in urban nations. Phi Delta Kappan, 5, 257-262.

On a global basis, the range of conditions and communities that can be called "rural" is staggering.

-Rural regions tend to be the poorest in each country.
-Some resemble "Third World Countries" more than their more developed neighbors.
-Some of them are among the fastest growing and some communities suffer steep declines in growth.
-Some areas have high illiteracy, and others have very low rates of illiteracy.

Rural schools are less specialized, well equipped, bureaucratic, more "basics" oriented, more reliant on the particular qualities of individual teachers, and more familial.

Diversity in school is still the norm because the areas are so diverse.

-Size is a shared characteristic, all are smaller than their urban counterparts and this produces deficits in what can and does go on. For example, an extremely small school can magnify normal strengths and weaknesses. A good teacher will help this but a bad teacher will ruin a situation.
-It is a question of closing or consolidation.
-Rural school expenses are disproportionately high.

Rural Schools are Able to Offer Reasonable Programs In:

-Sharing human material and financial resources.
-Using parental assistance and community help.
-Hiring generalists.
-Promoting individual instruction, independent study, (often because of a lack of course offerings).
-Doing without expensive equipment and facilities.

"Just as physically and mentally handicapped children cost more to educate, so does a reasonable education in isolated (geographically handicapped) areas.

Quality:

-Reliable hard data about the quality of small rural schools is scarce. The diversity of these areas adds to the problem.
-Policy makers must lay aside their comfortable stereotypes before any progress can be made in understanding what is really in today's small rural schools.

Physical Status:

-There is a strong modal tendency towards being barely adequate. There is a correlation between local wealth and the quality of facilities, however the correlation is not that strong.

Academic Status:

-It is hard to pin down and differing versions are common. Some say that the situation is better and some say that it is worse.
-The effects of socio-economic status strongly contributes to the problem.
- Is it appropriate or relevant to contrast urban to rural? Some say no.

Teacher Issues:

-Rural teachers ordinarily perform a regimen of tasks that would seem extraordinary in a large metropolitan school. This is always a problem area.

Types of Teachers:

Homebodies have grown up in a rural area and their only outside experience was in college. They have empathy and commitment with the community, parochial attitudes, a general weakness is the lack of background experience and ideas to use for school improvement, they can be poor or excellent, their teaching is solid especially in the basics and these teachers settle in quickly and stay.

Flashes in the Pan are usually young and only come into a rural school involuntarily or to use the job as a stepping stone. Often they are on the way up and out as soon as they get there. These teachers are bright, innovative, and willing to shake up the status quo. Insensitivity to local values, a lack of patience/commitment to adapt. They can inspire environment and innovations but are gone before they see innovations stick because they are not institutionalized.

Transplants have moved in from urban areas, have followed spouses with their jobs, are strong in experience and ideas, are weak in their ability to adjust to the school and community. They are often good teachers with special talents, with a good match with community they can be the best type of teacher. They have more continuity than #2, more openmindedness than #1. If there is a poor match with the community much antagonism, frustration and other problems can result.

Overall we need to upgrade teacher quality and qualifications.

Recruitment and Retention:

Attracting and keeping competent individuals in rural schools is a function of:

- -Characteristics
- -Conditions
- -Compensations.

Characteristics:

- -The odds of getting good teachers in rural areas improve when the pool has a number of generalists who are from and willing to return to rural areas.
- -The work of recruitment should be improved, preservice selection and training of the right kinds of teachers should be pursued.

Conditions:

- -Weather, geography, and facilities should be worked with as effectively as possible by school authorities.
- -Warmth, nice living, time, and a means to get away for a while are important considerations for working teachers.

Compensation:

- -Salaries in U.S. rural areas are 40% lower which is not true in the rest of the world.
- -Build packages of incentives that include housing, advancement, student/teacher ratio, and inservice opportunities.

Political Issues:

- -Often negative ideas led to self-fulfilling prophecies.
- -The good news is that rural education is now looked at as a priority.
- -Do not compare rural education to other types of education. Look at it as an entity of its own and see the benefits of rural life and education.

Sher, J. P. (1978). Education in sparsely-populated areas of developed nations. The Educational Forum, 43, 83-88.

This paper represents an overview of concerns in Britain, Finland, France, Iceland, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Scotland, Sweden, Switzerland, Australia, USA.

Background:

Issues related to education in sparsely populated areas are enjoying a minor renaissance in the developed nations. This renewed interest seems to come, in part, from larger concerns about balanced growth and rural development, a new appreciation, of cultural pluralism, skepticism about the quality and efficacy of large schools and urban models of education, and the irony of "progressive" educational practices (i.e., individualized instruction, cross-age grouping, peer teaching).

In order to face this issue accurately, two things are required:

1. definitions of target populations should not be so narrow that they artificially constrict the relevant constituancy (i.e., consider sparsely populated and rural interchangeably).
2. priority must be given to systematic acquisition and dissemination of information and research on rural education for there is a paucity of reliable data.

Major Problems:

I. Inherent Problems- those rooted in the nature of rural life, tend to be intractable.
   1. lack of access to specialized resources and services
   2. diseconomics
   3. lack of supporting institutions

II. Circumstantial Problems-grown largely out of poor assumptions, planning, implementation, and in theory are more amenable to reform efforts.
   1. the organization of education in rural areas
   2. teacher issues
   3. rural curriculum development

While there are problems, and fundamental changes are not likely to come easily, there is every reason to believe changes can be successfully implemented eventually.

Sher, J. P. (1978). A proposal to end federal neglect of rural schools. Phi Delta Kappan, 5, 280-282.

One of the major problems facing rural education today is a general lack of information concerning the practices and perceptions of rural educators.

One study looked at the use of innovative practices by rural educators, their major sources of information, and their perceptions concerning the need for specialized teacher training. Questions asked by this study--Can assessment of innovative practices help with:

-planning of pre-service and inservice activities?
-dissemination of information and sources of information?

KS responses - SEA & KUED School (p. 9-10)

Title III - (1965)
KEDDS (on-going)
Teacher Corps
SEEK (1970)
KEDDS-LINK

Rankings:

Innovative Practices	70-71
Teaching Innovations	73
Organizational & Administration Innov.	74
Teachers using Innovations	75-76
Sources of Information for Teacher Innov.	78-79

Results:

-innovative practices are not widespread in rural Kansas
-teachers and administrators were considered the major source of initiation for currently used innovations
-teachers are major sources of information for rural Kansas schools
-principles indicate a need for specialized teacher training (of 135 replies, 131 had no teachers with special training)

Silver, S. (1987, March). **Compliance with P.L. 94-142 mandates: Policy implications. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Rural Special Education Conference. Asheville, NC. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 284 705)**

To study aspects of P.L. 94-142 (Education for All Handicapped Children Act) that prove most and least problematic for rural special education cooperatives, which is the most prevalent type of cooperative arrangement, a sample was selected that included the 2 Federal Education Regions (from a total of 10) determined to contain the nation's most rural areas: Region IV (8 Southern States) and Region V (6 Midwestern States). Only those states containing special education cooperatives were used. After much refinement, a questionnaire was sent to 157 rural cooperative directors--135 (86%) responded. The joint agreement cooperative arrangement was most frequently used (38%), however the cooperative arrangement did not appear to effect compliance with P.L. 94-142 mandates. Area size and distances hampered service provision, however. The least difficult aspects to comply with were parental rights, assessment issues, and the Individualized Education Program (IEP). The most difficult were issues relating to personnel knowledge regarding special education, specified timelines, and parental attendance at IEP meetings. It was recommended that teacher training institutions alter their educator preparation programs, teacher certification boards examine their license requirements, state legislatures change their funding formulas to provide equity of funding nationwide, and further study be done to see if these results are representative of the entire country. Eleven references and 8 tables are appended.

Singer, G. H. S., Close, D. W., Irvin, L. K., Gersten, R., & Sailor, W. (1984). An alternative to the institution for young people with severely handicapping conditions in a rural community. Journal of the Association for the Severely Handicapped, 9 (4), 251-261.

Background

For the past ten years, deinstitutionalization has been a dominant trend for persons with handicapping conditions. The population of large public institutions has declined by approximately 38% and at the same time, the number of persons with handicapping conditions living in the community has risen dramatically. The research indicates that individuals with severe handicaps can benefit from life in community settings especially if these living arrangements provide organized programs to promote habilitation and community integration.

Rural Issues

Rural areas have lagged behind in providing community living arrangements. Some of the reasons are lack of qualified personnel, lack of comprehensive services, and difficulties in coordinating geographically spread services. Research indicates that individuals with multiple handicaps who also exhibit severe maladaptive behaviors often experience the greatest amount of problems with community integration and often have a higher recidivism rate.

The Present Research

This article reports on a deinstitutionalization program that is innovative in that it:

-serves a rural area
-serves young persons with multiple handicaps who exhibit severe maladaptive behaviors which have been acknowledged as a primary cause of community failure.

It presents the results of a demonstration project in Mt. Shasta in rural California. This project operates two transition homes that provide intensive training for its clients for up to three years before they move to foster or natural homes. The data reported relates to the first of the two group homes and the first nine young people who were served. This home provided comprehensive habilitation programs for the portion of the day that the residents were not in integrated programs for students with severe handicaps in the public schools.

Program philosophy stressed:

-normalized community living
-a personalized setting
-intensive habilitation training
-frequent age-appropriate integration with nonhandicapped community members
-assistance to the local public schools in developing classrooms and integrated programs
-parent and care giver training

Results indicate that young persons with severe handicaps who are labeled as multiply handicapped, nonambulatory, aggressive or resistive can learn new adaptive skills in a training home setting, and that their rate of growth is significantly higher than comparable persons in the institution. The project attempted to fill a major gap in the community service system for rural school aged individuals with severe handicaps. It used a strategy of developing a service model and replicating it. It evaluated the model from multiple perspectives (i.e., measures of adaptive behavior, description of changes in maladaptive behavior, and consumer/purchaser satisfaction) in order to capture a broad view of its efficacy and impact.

Suggestions for Further Research:

More research, demonstration, and replication is needed concerning other components of a comprehensive community based service system in rural and urban settings. Such components as family support services, generic medical services, community leisure services, and an array of normalized adult services all require further development. In addition, further research is needed to help improve residential models by addressing such issues as staff training and turnover, services for persons who are medically fragile, and ways to assure quality control in dispersed community residences.

Singer, G. H. S., Irvin, L. K., Irvine, B., Hawkins, N., & Cooley, E. **An empirical evaluation of a community-based support services package for families with developmentally disabled members.** **The Oregon Research Institute.**

Background

The challenge of raising a severely handicapped child at home may tax the resources of a family, create severe stress, and thereby undermine a positive family climate and some of its potential benefits. A variety of stressors (extra financial costs, the need for one parent to remain at home, added physical care, etc) can be present. The added physical care required can be a source of fatigue or strain and if a child exhibits aberrant behaviors, the primary caregiver may experience distress and feel socially isolated because of attitudes of friends and neighbors. As a result of these factors or in combination with others, parent of children with disabilities have demonstrated more symptoms of depression and stress disorders and eventually, chronic stress can result in family break-up or out-of-home placement.

At the present time, at lease 22 of the 50 states have developed some form of family support services and in the majority of these states, these services are available primarily to families with children with severe disabilities and/or to families of individuals who are at risk of institutionalization. Family support services utilize only a small percentage of the funds that go to serve individuals with disabilities, yet the family is increasingly being recognized as the most natural locus of sustained support for individuals with severe disabilities.

The Present Research:

Because of the trend towards an emphasis on family services there is a need for an empirical data base regarding the efficacy of various services over the life cycle of the family. Many services are often identified as useful, a few are promoted as being of utmost importance (financial assistance, case management, respite care, and parent counseling/training). The purpose of this study was to evaluate the efficiency, utility and impact of some of these services, particularly case management, respite care, and counseling/training, as an integrated family support package, for alleviating symptoms of stress in parents of children with severe and moderate disabilities.

The research was carried out in a small city in the Pacific Northwest and involved 51 parents (18 fathers, and 33 mothers)of children with moderate and severe disabilities. Parents who participated were volunteers because of a recruitment process by case management staff.

-There were two cohort groups who participated in the study over a two-year period
-Parents assigned to the treatment group participated in a 16 week series of meetings which involved group counseling and training, in an 8 week course on stress management, and an 8 week class on behavioral parenting.
-Parents were also assigned to a waiting list comparison group
-Both sets of parents received three hours per week of free respite care and on-going case management services.

Results:

Evaluation results document that a package of family support services can alleviate symptoms of psychological distress that are associated with chronic stress for parents of children with developmental disabilities. Also data from one cohort suggests that significant decrease in anxiety and depression can be maintained at one year. A combination of respite care, case management, and parent training and counseling can be of significant assistance to parents of children with moderate and severe disabilities. Additionally, parents perceive that family support package components are both important and successful in assisting them.

Singer, G. H. S., Sowers, J., & Irvin, L. K. (1986). Computer-assisted video instruction for training paraprofessionals in rural special education. Journal of Special Education Technology, 8 (1), 27-34.

Background:

Special education personnel in rural areas face a major difficulty related to the shortage of trained personnel to provide services to students with severe disabilities. Since rural districts/cooperatives often have only a small number of low-incidence children, paraprofessional training is often costly with the difficulties of distance and geography added to by the unusual nature of low-incidence disabilities. In rural areas, opportunity for on-the-job training with a skilled teacher is often rare. Several approaches to training rural SPED personnel have been tried, ranging from the traditional inservice training to the use of a variety of new technologies (videotapes, computer networks, and mobile vans with computers). One promising new technology that has not yet been studied is computer assisted video instruction (CAVI).

CAVI:

This is an instructional approach that combines the technology of video media and microcomputers and it appears that for training in rural areas it could be both effective and relatively inexpensive. Microcomputers can be linked to either videotape or videodisc machines in order to create interactive video lessons. Learners can receive instruction about a particular teaching technique by reading computer text, then view video demonstration of how to actually use the technique. The computer can also be programmed to present questions and to give feedback regarding the material covered.

This Research:

The subject for this study was a paraprofessional who was responsible for delivering six hours of instructions daily to a student with severe multiple handicaps. She was supervised by a special education teacher in the local school, however, the teacher had no previous training in SMH. Therefore, the subject, prior to this program, had little direct supervision and relied upon the suggestions of a rural consultant who visited the school one day per month.

Instructional equipment consisted of an Apple IIe, a black and white monitor, a VCR, and a color television. The VCR and the Apple IIe were connected with an interface card.

Five computer assisted video instruction lessons were produced:

- -Task Analysis
- -Data Collection and Mass Practica
- -Prompting
- -Teaching
- -Requesting
- -Teaching Initiations

Included in each of the lessons were:

- -a description of what the lesson would cover
- -a rationale for why teaching the skill was important
- -a description of each of the critical components related to performing the instructional technique used
- -questions and feedback related to the learner's understanding of the information presented.

The descriptions were presented via a videotaped instructor or computer script or, in some cases, both. The usual format was the presentation of a small amount of information, a demonstration, and then a question about the presented information. Each lesson took approximately 20-30 minutes. A research assistant traveled to the school to collect data on the paraprofessionals behavior and learning, and to deliver materials called for in the instruction.

Results:

During baseline, the paraprofessional never performed any of the targeted teaching behaviors. However, after the various lessons, she began to demonstrate all the targeted behaviors except for Massed Practice. These results provide the first demonstration that CAVI can be an effective means to actually improve the teaching skills of staff working with students with disabilities. The participant also responded positively to the approach and felt that what she had learned would have an effect on her teaching.

The generality of this finding should be viewed with caution. Research on inservice training of teachers suggests that only a small percentage of teachers are able to change their classroom behavior after exposure to modeling and demonstration of new techniques. It is possible that the subject of this project is a member of the minority.

Further research should examine cost savings, the efficacy of CAVI relative to other modes of inservice training.

Sowell, V., Correa, V., & Wardell, K. T. (1987). Outreach teacher training programs: Rural delivery of services on site. Journal of Visual Impairment And Blindness, 81, 14-18.

Introduction:

The need of rural areas to provide service to students with visual handicaps and other low incidence conditions is extensively documented. Various service delivery models have been developed for meeting these needs. However, the outreach model is a viable approach to providing long-term, responsive, and educationally relevant programs to children in rural areas.

Recruitment:

Because young people who are receiving training in university programs are in such demand, there are no incentives for graduates to enter rural areas. The young graduates do not feel confident in taking jobs where other resources will not be available to augment their beginning teaching experiences.

There are also fewer training programs that give students access to methods and procedures for developing resources in a previously undeveloped local education agency or rural cooperative.

Resources in Rural Communities:

1. Informal operating systems of small town and rural social systems usually involve extensive family interconnections
2. An orientation to rural communities to be aware of sources to obtain materials and other support services.

Why an Outreach Program is Needed:

1. Lack of funds for materials
2. Use of state agencies and volunteer services
3. Isolation of the teacher and of the handicapped children
4. Problems with delivering services

Strengths of the Outreach Model:

1. Continuity
2. Ability to meet the needs of the community
3. Once trained, the teacher remains in the rural community
4. Knowledge of the informal ecological systems
5. Knowledge of community resource
6. Appropriate training at the graduate level
7. Emphasis on the parents and the extended family

The Outreach Model in Operation:

The outreach model is based on the needs assessment of an Education Service Center or other state agency with interest in rural areas.

The model provides for a grass-roots approach in which the felt need is verbalized and the state agency is empowered to develop strategies to meet the need.

The strength of this model is that many teachers and administrators in rural areas are unable to attend courses and training programs at distant sites which may not be aimed at the educational situation of the particular rural area involved.

Schedules for training are usually set a year in advance. The most successful schedule so far has utilized alternate Saturdays and possibly Friday nights. The students are usually regular or special education teachers who devote approximately two years of Saturday classes to attain the credential.

Coursework involves a 21-hour sequence which counts toward a graduate degree at the university.

The textbooks and materials are brought to the rural area by the faculty or shipped by plane or bus.

Implementation:

During the conduct of the courses, the faculty members serve innovative roles in addition to their function as coordinators of learning by graduate students.

Weather is another factor to be considered because sometimes transportation systems such as airports close down. Usually, an extra weekend of class time is scheduled.

A regional resource book is always developed as part of the coursework for the introductory course. The book includes information such as:

1. List of needed local services
2. Available school materials
3. Voluntary and public agencies which serve blind children
4. Material on state and national resources

Media awareness is another important segment involved in implementation. It is important when the service center receives good public relations from the fact that it is sponsoring a needed program in the field.

A result of the program is a series of workshops for the parents of the children who will be taught and for some personnel as diagnosticians and administrators.

Value:

The value of the various courses lies in the innovative approach to teaching children in rural areas. Teachers who already have expertise and knowledge of child development enables them to advance rapidly in terms of special expertise needed for teaching visually handicapped students.

Swift, D. (1985, March). Facilitating certification and professional development for small schools. ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools. Las Cruces, NM. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 260 884)

This digest addresses the problems of recruiting and retaining qualified teachers for small and rural schools. It outlines improvements that could be made by teacher education programs, state education agencies, school superintendents, and teachers themselves.

Teacher Education Programs:

- broad subject areas
- diverse subject areas
- an interdisciplinary curriculum
- teacher self-sufficiency
- living in the community while doing practicum and internship
- multiple teaching endorsements
- build on prior endorsements
- provide for diverse as well as related endorsements
- include courses that combine coursework and methodology
- avoid duplication of coursework
- use interactive telecommunications for dissemination
- weekend, correspondence, intensive coursework

State Departments of Education:

- states could adopt requirements in broad endorsement areas thus permitting the prospective or inservice teachers to elect either indepth specialization or a generalist approach across the endorsement area. It would be the employing district's prerogative to specify its needs within the endorsement area.

State Funding Agencies

- can assist in the professional preparation and development of teachers in small and rural schools through adequate funding of the districts to provide additional incentives to recruit and retain teachers in rural areas (i.e., salary increments for multiple endorsements, professional leave, tuition reimbursement). In this way small districts could compete with larger ones.

Local School Districts

- advise teacher education institutions of their needs in terms of both preservice and inservice
- form a coalition to emphasize the extent of these needs
- survey districts, etc. to form a data base of specific needs
- actively assist teachers in professional development plans

Teachers

"Nearly two-thirds of all teachers...serve predominantly rural constituancies (Massey & Crosby, I983) and the rural population continues to grow dramatically". Therefore, preservice personnel opportunities for rural employment are good. Because of this, prospective teachers and their advisors should consider this fact when they are devising programs of study. For teachers already employed in a rural area, a professional development plan should be established and implemented. Not only will the teacher benefit but so will the district, other teachers, and the students.

Tawney, J. W., & Aeschleman, S. R. (1979). Using telecommunication technology to instruct rural severely handicapped children. Exceptional Children, 46, 118-125.

Normalization involves home and community living for even the most impaired children:

- -this presumes a durable and financially stable family unit, with educational intervention from birth, and must necessarily involve parents with tutorial capability within the family
- -a more realistic view is that most families will require a variety of support systems from educational and social services

Children with severe handicaps - unique problems:

- -low incidence
- -heterogenous
- -requires extensive intervention

Traditional educational services especially in isolated areas can not meet the needs of all handicapped children, therefore, we need innovations.

BEH - 5 telecommunication projects:

Kentucky Project: Developed to electronically control learning environments in home settings to educate children 0-6 who manifest severe developmental retardation and attendant multiple handicaps.

-strategy: The micro system was modified so computer generated signals could go over the phone lines into homes. Learning devices built and placed in homes so children could be engaged for short periods of time. Liaison staff visited homes to work on develop instructional work and to teach parents to work with their children, as well as to arrange intervention of social service and health delivery systems.

-components: INTERACT system developed by BRS. LVE#1 Data General NDVA 1200 series, ACT (Automated Contingency Translation) language.

-child criteria:
- -sufficient vision to discriminate shapes
- -movement in one limb not impaired by handicaps
- -age 6 or under
- -not enrolled in other programs

-family criteria: Referrals from some service delivery system, health information, location for apparatus, environmental models, etc.

Instructional program development:

-an apparatus designed to increase the strength and or rate of a motor response or to teach visual discrimination. Each was linked to a component that gave a reinforcing event (music, lights, bells, tactile stimulation, etc.). Motor strengthening devices that are adjustable with increased strength (Kick panel, Arm Pull) work well. Visual discrimination devices such as match-to-sample devices which are modified (slide projector with switch) can be used.

-programs ran 15-30 minutes per day, 5 days a week. Procedures involved phone contact with home for data transmission followed by post session phone contact to discuss issues. Parent trainers were also available.

Outcomes:

-one measure was the percentage of sessions of data transmissions without problems m = 69% rg 42%-92%. By year iii, m = 73%. Another measure was child performance data, some had rapid skill acquisition with greater and stable rate of response. Others had consistent response by no greater increase or decrease over time. Few children had gradual declines in performance.

Benefits:

-microtechnology could be used to serve individuals over large areas. Parents are accepting of results. Intervention from birth systems seem viable in rural areas.

Needs:

-money, research, support, pressure from agencies, public acceptance, are all important.

Thatcher, R. W., & Lester, M.L. (1983). Intelligence and lead toxins in rural children. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 16, 355-359.

Rural population used: Maryland communities of less than 25,000 people. Hair lead content, intelligence tests, school achievement, and motor impairment assessments for 149 students, 5-16 years of age, 68 males & 81 females:

- lead concentration differences are significant between groups, and predicted IQ scores independent of group classifications is significant.
- showed significant negative correlation between lead content levels and intelligence functioning, even in the normal to gifted range.
- continuous inverse relationship between intelligence and relatively low levels of body lead in which the higher levels of cognitive functioning are affected before any signs of gross motor impairment are seen.

Four groups were established: 1) Gifted, 2) normal, 3) low achievers, and 4) very low achievers. The sort from WISC-R, WPPSI, WRAT, MIT (Motor Impairment Test), and the Purdue Pegboard Test were used:

- findings suggest that exposure to low concentrations of lead may result in subtle, but behaviorally relevant diminuation of functioning in the absence of overt behavioral symptoms
- measures of cognitive functioning better indicate problems than gross motor testing

Thomas, B. (1985). Early childhood education: Issues in rural areas. Education Digest, 50, 32-33.

In rural areas there is an increase in population and a decrease in the birthrate. If the numbers of children decrease as the average age increases at a rate of 25% a year then a class of 20 students will lose 1 student every other year.

Issues:

- There is a fear of tampering with the child/family relationship but research shows that Early Childhood Education is beneficial for all.
- E.C.E. programs benefit the student academically, give support and training for parents, give continuity of programs, and saves training time in Special Education Programs.
- E.C.E. programs are a good financial investment for the community.

Problems:

- Identification, cooperative efforts to locate with other age groups is good.
- Transportation, especially in the winter is difficult.
- Program staffing, proper certification is a goal.
- Program choice can be important.

Parent Needs:

- Groups, crisis intervention, day-care, toy libraries, need to be offered.

Child Needs:

- More peers, interpersonal skills, out-door time, and better adjustment to boundaries or limits.

Early Childhood Education programs must be tailor made for rural communities. Communities must assess, plan, implement, and evaluate their own design. Students, parents, staff, community, transportation, money, and goals must be considered.

Thompson, M. (1978). A lot we can learn from those not-so-second-rate rural schools. American School Board Journal, 165, 36-38.

Argument:

Writing in Education in Rural America, Editor Jonathan Sher and fellow authors argue forcefully that parental involvement, community support, individualized instruction, and many other educational ideals that city schools currently are struggling to achieve already are the essence of many rural programs.

Rural vs. Urban Schools:

What makes rural schools different is the way they solve their particular problems.

Because rural schools have long suffered from a lack of money, their boards and administrators have for years learned to make do with what they have, as city school staff now must learn to live with restricted budgets.

Because rural teachers and principals in isolated schools are thrown largely on their own resources, they have learned to plan and adapt materials for their own students just as policy-makers now suggest city and suburban school staff do.

A Look at the Mecker School System:

The Mecker school system is located in the northwest corner of Colorado. The surrounding area includes 2,000 square miles of wilderness, mountains and canyons.

The system consists of three schools: a K-6 elementary school in a cottage building, a 7-8 junior high school and a high school, plus a three teacher rural grade school with approximately 40 students.

When the small staff can't handle a teaching subject, it turns to the community for help. This is done by:

1. a vocational exploration program
2. students who work without pay, but earn academic credit for training at any one of the 70 small businesses, or state agencies in the area.

Thornberg, R. (1984). Pennsylvania's rich harvest: Partnerships for progress. American Education, 20, 19-22.

Pennsylvania has the largest rural population of any state. The raw material of our life and industry comes from fields, farms, and mines passing through the hands of those who live there.

If we fail to see that those hands have mastered the art of learning, if we ignore our responsibility to meet the needs of rural America, if we in any way neglect their future, we weaken the heart of our heartland.

Many small school districts have to stretch their limited resources to afford the "state of the art" training necessities.

Partnerships between cooperatives and school districts or between chambers of commerce and school districts include:

-1200 in Pennsylvania
-600 in rural areas
-at least 1/2 of the rural districts have some type of active partnership underway.
-Adopt-A-School program from the state
-Private Section Initiative Task Force/Rural Affairs Task Force
-agriculture in the classroom
-Customized Job Training (CJT)

Tucker, J. (1981). Reaching rural handicapped children: The transportation situation in rural service delivery. Making it work in rural communities. A rural network monograph. Office of Special Education (ED). Washington, DC. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 204 062)

The purpose of this monograph on transportation issues is two fold:

1. to discuss the problems faced by rural programs in providing services to children with disabilities and their families
2. to identify some of the solutions and strategies currently in use to solve these problems

The Handicapped Children's Early Education Program (HCEEP) has long been involved in providing services in rural areas. One of the major problems faced by rural service providers has often been identified as transportation.

In an effort to identify specific transportation problems and strategies, the Rural Network conducted three separate surveys of HCEEP rural projects. Each asked for information on transportation problems being encountered and strategies being implemented to deal with these problems.

Problems in Rural Transportation:

1. Environmental/Geographic
    -terrain
    -climate
    -distance
2. Funding/Cost Factors
    -sparse population=high cost
    -maintenance cost
    -services v. transportation costs
    -reimbursement issues
    -liability and insurance
    -basic availability of funds
3. Lack of Public Transportation
4. Parental Inability to Provide Transportation
5. Cooperation/Support From Other Agencies

Strategies in Dealing With Identified Problems:

1. Environmental/Geographic
    -communication v. actual transportation
    -different vehicles (4-wheel drive, agency vehicles)
    -varied schedules
    -team approaches

2. Funding/Cost Factors
    - use of federal funds
    - use of mass transit authority funds
    - creative use of vehicles
    - mobile classrooms
    - parents
3. Lack of Public Transportation
    - still a problem
    - use foster grandparents as transportation aides
    - contract with commuters to transport children
    - use Medicaid allocation for travel
    - re-locate child during school week
4. Parental Inability to Provide Transportation
    - carpooling and mileage reimbursement
    - transportation committees/babysitting help
    - volunteers
    - hired drivers
5. Cooperation/Support from Other Agencies
    - coordinate efforts with public schools, etc.
    - coordinate efforts with social service agencies
    - coordinate efforts with child's other placement (i.e. Head Start, daycare)

While a number of creative short term strategies have been identified it appears that long-term solutions have not.

Wachtel, W. J. (1983). Self-assessment of knowledge and training needs for personnel serving preschool-aged handicapped children: A rural-urban comparison. Paper presented at the Annual Rural Research Conference. Lubbock, TX. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 225 737)

Background:

During the past 25 years, the rationale for preschool education of the handicapped has become increasingly clear. Programs can be justified from at least the following six points of view.

1. Effectiveness of Preschool Programs
2. Legal Rights
3. Parent Programming
4. Learning
5. Social Change
6. Educational Economics

The Project:

New Mexico State University was awarded a three-year federal grant to provide inservice training and to develop support systems for "regular educators' who serve infants, toddlers and preschoolers with disabilities. Personnel trained through the project will serve either as (a) classroom teachers, and (b) early childhood specialist trainers. An initial step in the project was the development of two questionnaires to assess the knowledge levels and perceived inservice training needs of those working in preschool programs in New Mexico and in the El Paso Independent School District.

-In New Mexico, the instrument was sent to a wide range of personnel in the state identified as having a connection with preschool programs for students with disabilities.

- In El Paso, the instrument was sent to teachers and aides within the district who were actively engaged in teaching preschool children with disabilities.

Results:

Respondents' expressed relative knowledge levels and inservice training needs for each item and ranked them in order of importance. In all cases the differences between urban and rural groups in the area of perceived knowledge and inservice training needs indicated that rural groups tended to perceive themselves as less highly trained than did their urban counterparts and that training needs should focus on fundamental aspects of early childhood education for children with disabilities . It appears that urban preschool personnel appear to have more formal training as indicated by relative knowledge levels. This trend reinforces the commonly held belief that urban areas have access to more qualified instructors.

Knowledge levels different urban/rural - application of operant behaviorism: use of early childhood materials, behaviors of young children with disabilities, parent training techniques, identification/screening of high-risk children.

Inservice training needs different urban/rural - application of operant behaviorism: use of early childhood materials, behaviors of young children with disabilities, child-abuse identification and reporting procedures.

Webster, S. (1984). Rural helping systems. Human Services in the Rural Environment, 9 (1), 17-23.

This article is designed to clarify and elaborate on concepts useful in understanding the context of rural practice. Rural social work writers have labored for several generations to elucidate the aspects of rural practice which must be understood to prepare trained professionals for effective practice in rural communities. Two principal areas have been identified: understanding eco-socio-psycho characteristics of rural people and understanding rural helping systems (i.e., physicians, nurses, psychologists, social workers, and the formal organizations which employ these professionals). Formal and informal helping systems are explained as well as the forces affecting system development, specifically, (a) functionalist effects; (b) historicist [sic] effects; (c) acculturation effects; and (d) exchange effects.

Will, M. (1985). Provision of special education services to rural children and youth with disabilities: OSERS perspective. Rural Special Education Quarterly, 6 (4), 47-49.

-OSERS major priority is for services to all children with handicaps, regardless of where they reside. Their approach is founded on P.L. 94-142 (1975), and P.L. 98-199 (1983), (F.A.P.E. etc.).

-LRE is the core concept of service provision. It can only remove a student from a regular classroom for educationally compelling reasons.

-LRE also provides related services close to home, with the parents as the string role.

-Since 1975 problems in rural areas have been documented, progress has been made, however, there are several major problems.
  -The absence of a consistent definition of what "rural" is.
  -Problems with recruiting and retaining quality staff.
  -Problems with inservice delivery.
  -Gaps in research.

-NRP Definition: A working definition developed through OSERS funding helped to provide a better statistical base for service provision.

Recruitment Problems:

-Problems include isolation, social deprivation, poor housing, extensive travel, and poor pay.

Turnover Problems:

-There have been many studies done, but there is still a problem that needs a solution.
-One OSERS study found that in some rural districts the entire staff leaves after 1 year.
-(NRP studies, Helge, 1981 & 1984, Smith-Davis, Burke, Noel,1984), 40-50% attrition levels were found.
-An OSERS/NRP survey,1983, surveyed 200 administrators, 200 districts, in all 50 states. 64% said that retaining staff members was a major problem.

Not only was it difficult to provide adequate numbers of professionals, but it is also a case of preparing numbers of willing and capable people to serve handicapped children in localities that have special disincentives.

Preservice:

-Programs need to identify characteristics unique to rural settings, adjust coursework, practical related experience to accommodate diverse roles and relationships that professionals will encounter i.e.,heterogeneous population, low incident situations, cooperative situations, and shared responsibilities.

Inservice:

-Special education teacher may be the only conveyor of services in the area and is probably the best inservice supplier.
-Rural teachers are often out of touch with current practices.
-Definition of manpower needs according to the level and quality of services needed to meet P.L. 94-142 requirements.
-This is a responsibility of the SEA & the LEA.
-Training should be incorporated into the inservice.

Comp. Systems of Personnel Development, (CSPD 94-142).

-State plans must specify how children with handicaps will receive appropriate education.
-Special attention must be paid to rural areas. For example Wyoming and Wisconsin require special certificates to increase responsiveness to rural needs.
-A majority of states now have certification policies primarily non-categorical, or multi-categorical with categorical certification reserved for special personnel who serve low-incident populations.
-States are turning to regional service units.

OSERS:

I. -Handicapped Children's Early Education Program (HCEEP), supports experienced preschool and ECEH programs that "show promise of promoting a comprehensive approach" to special needs and problems of handicapped kids and families.
-In the 1984 fiscal year, 33 projects were done in rural areas. Some demonstration of outreach was shown. The program was characterized by the promotion of early childhood models which help preschool teachers through training and communication.
II. -Training Personnel for the Education Handicapped supports efforts to upgrade education of the handicapped for teachers in rural areas which will support appropriate personnel training.
-Participants are trained to fulfill many roles: teacher/parent, trainer, access to resources, an understanding of multidisciplinary approach, local communication systems, adapt techniques for communication characteristics, and special training.

-In fiscal year 1984-85, 41 projects were prepared for special education teachers to work in rural areas.

-In fiscal year 1985, new competition developed model training programs for preservice preparation of persons for rural working situations.

-The projects were designed to assist agencies and instructors to develop and maintain quality training programs to alleviate problems.

-The projects address low-incidence children, ECEH, infants, transitions.

-Models address governance, recruitment/admission and retention of trainees, faculty/staff, program content (current goals and objectives as related to competencies, practicum experience, and individual experience), research/scholarship, management, evaluation, and cost effectiveness.

-Coordination with parent groups, community groups, public and private schools etc.

-In fiscal year 1986 there was Models for Training in Colleges and Universities.

-Its goal involved a shared responsibility with LEA and SEA, higher education, the federal government and other interested professionals to enable us to progress toward the resolution of problems surrounding the development of viable service delivery models.

Willey, D. S. (1981). Wither rural education? Contemporary Education, 52, 235-238.

Introduction:

During the past 60 years mechanization of agriculture, mining, and lumbering has probably been the major cause of outward migration from rural America. However, recently rural areas of some states are experiencing slight population gains via reverse migration.

The Effects of Consolidation and Reorganization:

Automotive technology has made long distance transportation of students possible, thus implementing consolidation.

Results of Consolidation:

-per student costs were not lowered
-larger high schools selected only the superior students
-a loss of primary interaction
-loss of local pride and citizen participation
-neglect at state and federal funding levels

Statistics:

-1/3 of the nation's children are rural
-nonmetropolitan average income is 15% below the urban average
-rural poverty incidence is 50% higher than metropolitan areas
-rural areas contain the nation's highest rates of infant death, underemployment, poor nutrition, and inadequate housing
-roughly 24% of black adults and 30% of Hispanic adults in rural areas have dropped out of school by fifth grade

A Rural and Urban Comparison:

-rural students typically do not achieve at the levels of their urban age-mates
-rural America remains conservative in matters of social policy and attitudes toward the emancipation of women

Renaissance of Rural Education:

A recent increase in the production tempo of rural-oriented educational literature can be found in a wide variety of journals.

Willingham, W. W. (1987). Handicapped applicants to college: An analysis of admissions decisions. College Board Report No. 871. (ERIC Document Reproduction No. ED 287 278)

The purpose of the study was to compare college admission decisions concerning handicapped and nonhandicapped applicants with comparable Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores and high school grades (HSG). The study focused on 1,539 handicapped students who applied to 121 institutions that participated in the College Entrance Examination Board's Summary Reporting Service in 1982-83. Predicted and actual admission rates were compared for a number of different groups of handicapped applicants. Compared to other applicants to the same college, the physically handicapped and visually impaired groups were slightly below average with respect to their academic qualifications; learning disabled students were lower; and hearing impaired applicants ranked lowest in relation to nonhandicapped applicants. In general, handicapped applicants tended to rank significantly lower on HSG than on SAT. Handicapped applicants were admitted on much the same basis as nonhandicapped applicants, but there were exceptions that favored hearing impaired applicants, disfavored small groups of visually impaired and physically handicapped applicants to small institutions, and disfavored learning disabled applicants to a small degree. Findings were inconsistent with the assumption that admissions officers focus special attention upon test scores (as opposed to the full student record) in evaluating the applications of handicapped students.